

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 13, 1882.

The Week.

ADMIRAL SEYMOUR's long-delayed bombardment of the Alexandrian forts began on Tuesday morning, and after a feeble resistance the forts were gradually silenced and their magazines blown up, four having been destroyed up to noon, Alexandrian time, and with trifling damage to the fleet. What Arabi's object in fighting at all was does not yet appear, nor is there any sign of what he means to do next. Troops are apparently going forward both from England and India, and the Canal will be seized and guarded. The entrance of ships has been for the moment forbidden by Admiral Seymour, M. de Lesseps protesting against it as a breach of neutrality. Port Saïd is to be occupied, it is said, forthwith. The Sultan in the meantime plays his part, with that now somewhat mock dignity in which he is an adept, by sending a telegram to London, asking to have the Admiral forbidden to bombard, as a grave violation of his sovereign rights. If the Turks had any humor, one would call this grim joking; but they have not, and the capacity of the governing class for illusions seems to remain undiminished.

Of those who read the news of the bombardment of the fortifications of Alexandria by Admiral Seymour, many will be either glad or sorry. If the American public is to sympathize with either side in this quarrel, however—as it can hardly help doing in these days of telegraphs—it is desirable that its sympathies should take the right direction. An attempt is being made to persuade it that Arabi Bey and his Colonels and Notables represent the cause of Egyptian nationality against foreign meddlers, usurpers, and oppressors. This attempt is based mainly on the stories of two Englishmen, Mr. Blunt and Sir William Gregory, but principally of Mr. Blunt. It is proper, however, to warn the unsuspecting against them. They belong to the class of fanatic “experts” whom it is dangerous to trust in the management of human affairs. Mr. Blunt has “Islam” on the brain. He knows a great deal about Islam, and, like the insanity “experts,” he sees Islam in everything, even in Arabi Bey. He thinks this must be a revolt of the Arab believers against extortionate infidels. But facts are stronger than Mr. Blunt, and stronger even than Islam. We know what the condition of Egypt was under the late Khedive, before the foreign Control began; we know what it was before the present outbreak; and we cannot help drawing our own inferences. The late Khedive was simply the head of the gang of whom Arabi is now the head—the gang of Turkish and Arabic official scoundrels who have for centuries lived off the earnings of the peasantry. Ismail was the Tweed of the Ring. He borrowed enormously, taxed enormously, and enriched his creatures enormously. When

his power of making “divvies” was at an end, he had to go, and then the European financiers took charge to secure the interest on their bonds. This was not the most desirable or defensible cause of interference, but the interference has done nothing but good. It has cleared the service of corruption. It has lightened the taxes, made their mode of collection humane, their amount and the time of their collection certain, given the peasants a sense of security, and the whole country such purity of administration, both financial and judicial, as it had never seen before. One single fact speaks volumes: it has abolished the extortion of taxes from the peasantry by the use of the raw cowhide on the taxpayer's naked back. These are the things which enrage Arabi and his men. They want to get at the peasantry again unchecked, as their forerunners have done for ages.

The probability which we pointed out some days ago, that France would keep out of the Egyptian scrimmage and let England do the fighting, has been almost converted into certainty by the later advices. Admiral Conrad has, it is said, been ordered to be present while Admiral Seymour is chastising Arabi, but he was not to join in the work. In fact, his orders much resemble those given to the French fleet off Dulcigno when the British were trying to force the Turks to evacuate the place last year. What is most curious about this programme is that French pride does not seem to be in the least wounded by it. Even those French journals, like the *Debats*, which mourn over it as a sign of French abasement, acknowledge that the course of the Ministry is justified by popular feeling. That Gambetta's fall was largely caused by his adventurous foreign policy, as revealed both in the Tunisian venture, which he approved, and in his negotiations with England about Egypt, is now made pretty clear. Both the Chambers and the public were afraid of a man with a foreign policy of any kind. They wanted to be sure of a quiet life. The present Ministry at first proposed to join England in intervention in Egypt, but England hung back, and suggested that the Sultan should be got to restore order, so as to avoid arousing the fanaticism of the natives. France recoiled from this because the reappearance of the head of the Mohammedan faith on the scene anywhere in North Africa would imperil French influence in Algiers and in Tunis. But the truth was that at that time neither France nor England thought the Egyptian crisis likely to prove serious. Since it has become serious the boldness of the French has disappeared, and they appear to be actually consenting to what it was supposed they never would consent to—the subjugation of Egypt by English arms alone.

It is not the dislike of war only, however, which is chilling French courage. Dread of Bismarck has much to do with it. Bismarck is now the *bête noire* of French politics, and he is more dreaded when he keeps silent than when

he speaks out. It is now a settled tradition among Frenchmen that, though he may not wish to fight France at present, he is constantly trying to get her into a war with somebody, from which, whether vanquished or victorious, she will issue badly mauled, and that then, feeling assured of her harmlessness, he will go to work and reduce her in some way or other to a lower pitch of feebleness and humiliation than she has yet reached. The latest theory of his designs current in France is, that he means to solve the Turkish problem by moving the Sultan and all his belongings out of Constantinople, and establishing him at Cairo, to restore, in the midst of a Mohammedan population, the faded glories of the Khalifate. The creation of any such power in Africa would, of course, be a serious obstacle to the realization of those dreams of a New France in that region by which so many French heads are filled; and the scheme, therefore, has in French eyes a diabolical aspect not unworthy of its reputed author. Whatever be the cause, however, the world is witnessing, for the first time in a thousand years, a pacific and cautious France, which is stirred by neither fire nor drum, and is no longer drawn by the sound of the cannon. “Hang yourself, brave Crillon; we fought at Arques, and you were not there,” wrote Henri Quatre to one of his friends. But the Crillons of to-day are not sorry to miss Arques or any other field.

Mr. Hubbell has written a letter to Mr. Curtis in which he emphatically declines to stop assessing Government employees, and gives a new reason for it which deserves general attention. He says that he has to assess office-holders because “the records of Congress show throughout all the Gulf States the systematic use of tissue ballots for purposes of fraud, the systematic throwing out of ballots cast, and the insertion of ballots not cast, the systematic defeat of the exercise of the right of suffrage, and every conceivable violation of law, for the purpose of thwarting the expression of the popular will.” He therefore proposes to continue to collect money to “prevent these outrages” and “punish the criminals.” The long and the short of the matter is that means must be provided for “smiting this crime against our common liberty,” and the smiting is going to be done by the Congressional Committee; and any one who, like Mr. Curtis, attempts to cripple its operations, becomes “a most efficient ally of the Southern bulldozer”; and “there,” adds Mr. Hubbell, “I leave you.” A more impudent use of the “bloody shirt” was never made.

The *Herald* has rendered the community a very valuable service in bringing to light a book entitled ‘The History of the Hubbells,’ a genealogical work, giving an account of the family to which Mr. Jay Abel Hubbell belongs. It appears from this volume that the family is of Bedouin origin, and that Jay's ancestors, when wandering in the Valley of the Euphra-

tes, were known among the other tribes as the "Hubbas," and doubtless "assessed" a good deal, as the Bedouin custom is, over all the adjacent country. This must have been as early as the sixth century of the Christian era, for in the ninth century the Hubbas were in Denmark following the calling of pirates; and it must have taken at least three hundred years, in those days of slow locomotion and fixed habits, for a tribe of Bedouins to get so far north, and effect such a complete change in their ways as was involved in the substitution of the galley for the horse. They settled in England as freebooters, and finally changed their name to "Hubbell," and under this one of them came to America in 1647, and was the ancestor of our own Hubbell. The display in the latter of the old Bedouin and Danish passion for assessing is a very curious case of what the Darwinians sometimes call survival, and sometimes reversion.

The *Sun* has a despatch from Harrisburg containing the interesting information that Mr. Hubbell's Campaign Committee is trying to extort money by way of assessment from the managers and teachers and assistants at the Indian training-school at Carlisle, Pennsylvania. Among those assessed are one officer of the Army, one Indian, fifteen women, and half a dozen mechanics. As there is not one of the employees at the Carlisle school who owes his or her appointment to partisan influence, the application of the assessment system to them would seem to be based on the principle that everybody who draws money from the Government must be made tributary to the campaign fund of the ruling party. There is an air of thoroughness about this. It is, indeed, thorough in theory, but Mr. Hubbell will have to go a step or two further to make it so in practice. He ought to assess all the pensioners of the United States, and also all the Indians drawing annuities from the Government. If the party must have money, according to Mr. Hubbell's recent manifesto, to protect the American people against bulldozing, it ought to have a good deal of it; and nobody who gets a dollar from Uncle Sam should be spared. Mr. Hubbell has made a good beginning.

There was published last week in the *Herald* an interesting collection of evidence on the subject of "voluntary" contributions to campaign funds. It consists of the successive letters demanding money sent out during the campaign of 1880. First, in April, the poor Government clerk, with a salary, say, of \$1,200, on which he has to support a wife and children, gets a letter informing him that the Congressional Committee thinks that, "under the circumstances in which the country finds itself placed," he will "esteem it both a privilege and a pleasure to make its fund a contribution, which it is hoped may not be less than \$—." Having secured two per cent. of the \$1,200 in this way, six months later comes a circular from Mr. Hubbell asking for "an additional one per cent." to make the "coming victory complete." Meanwhile the Republican State Committee are sending requests for "voluntary" contributions too. On

August 27 they ask for "a contribution of \$— (one-half before September 3)," the amount fixed being three per cent. on the salary. September 13, the clerk receives a reminder of the previous letter. October 16, he is dunned again by a third letter, and asked to send on the money "by return mail," and finally, October 27, the Secretary of the State Committee, Mr. Glidden, throws off the mask altogether, and instead of sending a letter to the clerk himself, sends it to the head of the department in which he is employed. His letter encloses a schedule of names of employees, with the amounts "yet due" opposite each name, and winds up in the following significant terms: "The total unpaid at this date and due from the employees in your office appears to be —. Your immediate attention to this matter is very important." In this way six per cent. is wrung out of the clerk. Six per cent. on \$1,200 is \$74, or very nearly an entire month's income. The beauty of it is the pretence that the whole thing is voluntary. Nobody does such a thing except under the severest pressure, and the pressure on the clerk is the severest that can be put upon any one: it is simply starvation for himself and his family, through loss of employment.

The House of Representatives in Committee of the Whole rejected an appropriation of \$25,000 for a civil-service commission. The appropriation was moved as an amendment to the Sundry Civil Bill by Mr. Bayne, of Pennsylvania, a Republican. He said that he moved it because the President had asked for it, because it was to carry out an existing law, and because it would give members an opportunity to show whether the frequent and emphatic declarations of the two political parties in favor of civil-service reform had been made in good faith. Mr. Willis, of Kentucky, a Democrat, earnestly seconded Mr. Bayne. The debate was very short. Mr. Cannon, of Illinois, Republican, was opposed to all this sort of thing because, as he said, under the civil-service rules "college boys and college girls fresh from their books could stand a better examination than people who had practical experience." Mr. Neal, of Ohio, also a Republican, asked "what chance the soldiers who went into the Army and bared their breasts to the leaden storm in order to preserve their country, would have alongside of these fresh college-bred girls and boys in these examinations?" Mr. Cannon thought they would have "none at all," and thereupon both parties gave an earnest of their good faith in making repeated and emphatic declarations in favor of civil-service reform by voting against the appropriation for a civil-service commission. If the House votes as the Committee of the Whole did, President Arthur, who was scarcely less emphatic in his letter of acceptance and his message, but has since acted very much as if he had never heard of civil-service reform, may now say that he would have done something had not Congress pronounced against the whole scheme, just as General Grant said when he got tired of the reform he had commenced. It is the old farce, now repeated, however, before a more interested audience.

The Administration has been goaded by the charges made in and out of Congress that it has been trying to "stalwartize" the party by removals in the civil service, into publishing a sort of schedule of the President's doings in that field. It appears from this that out of 874 appointments made in nine months by President Arthur "only forty-nine" were owing to removals, while 428 were reappointments, and 446 were appointments to fill vacancies caused by death, disability, or the expiration of the term of office. Most of the removals too, it is maintained, were "for cause." But the return would be more satisfactory if it showed in how many cases officers whose term had expired were not reappointed. It appears clear enough from this that there is a growing fear in political circles of carrying on "rotation" by arbitrary dismissals in the old-fashioned style. More and more reliance has to be placed on the filling of places with new men on the expiration of the four years' term, and it was probably for this reason that the bill was introduced, which was defeated the other day, limiting the term of internal-revenue collectors to four years also. The dismissal of an experienced and efficient officer at the end of four years simply because his commission has expired, is, however, no more justifiable as a measure of administration than dismissal at any other time, although there is legal excuse for it.

The weather during the week was very favorable for the harvesting of winter wheat, which promises to be the largest crop ever gathered; for the growth of spring wheat, which is equally promising; and for the forcing of the corn crop, which is backward and uncertain. This news respecting the crops, the present and prospective ease of the money market (the surplus reserve of the New York banks having run up to \$8,300,000), another call by the Treasury for \$16,000,000 of the extended 6 per cent. bonds, and, on Tuesday, the news that the English ships had begun the bombardment of Alexandria—all these considerations contributed to help the upward speculation at the Stock Exchange. The advance in the price of stocks ranged from $\frac{1}{4}$ to $9\frac{1}{2}$ points. All classes of investments were strong, railroad bonds having advanced 1@8, and State bonds 1@6 $\frac{1}{2}$ points, the latter the bonds of the State of Tennessee. Railroad traffic returns for the month of June and for the last two weeks were as a rule smaller than a year ago, but as the new crops begin to be moved an increase is to be looked for. The London and foreign markets were little disturbed by the opening of hostilities by England in Egypt, nor were the foreign exchanges here affected. Gold exports for this year are thought to be over, and some bankers think that within ninety days we shall again be importing gold. General trade was fairly good, and the outlook warrants the expectation of a large and satisfactory autumn trade. Anything like a general war in Europe would of course make an excellent market for everything this country has to sell.

Apropos of the circular issued by our Government, on the 31st of March last, explaining, or attempting to explain, why the International Monetary Conference was not to meet in April,

the French *Revue de la Finance*, in publishing it, remarks that "it is natural that America should seek to get European states to adopt bi-metallism, and France to resume the coinage of silver, inasmuch as she thus hopes to get rid of the large quantities of silver she is extracting from her mines, and the accumulation of which is causing depreciation; but it is impossible to understand how the French Government could allow itself to join the United States in a bi-metallist campaign. The reports of the Bank of France show that we [the French] have an abundance of gold for the needs of circulation, and that the coinage of silver would simply flood us with an inconvenient and depreciated money." In fact, there is little doubt that France may hereafter be counted out of the bi-metallic forces. In Germany, too, business men are growing impatient with the bi-metallic jeremiads, and are asking the Government to stop them and restore confidence by renewed formal adherence to its monometallic programme. The wails of the bi-metallists, however, grow louder as their cause begins to look more hopeless. The last London *Economist* reviews a pamphlet by the bi-metallic Mr. Ottomar Haupt, in which he appeals to England, in accents almost of despair, to become bi-metallic. He says the present state of things cannot last much longer; that the great countries must, if nothing is done to rehabilitate silver, "go over to the enemy—to the gold system," and "a frightful struggle for gold will then ensue," and he calls on England "to pause and take the state of things into consideration." The *Economist*, however, mocks at his calamity; points out that the Indian rupee is worth more now than it was a year ago; that silver will probably not depreciate more than it has done; that the gold countries will help to keep it up a little if need be; but that it will probably before long be only token-money throughout Europe, and that England cannot be expected to protect the silver of Mexico and Nevada at the expense of the gold of Australia, and India, and of the Gold Coast.

In his review of Mr. Blaine's diplomacy in South America, Mr. Belmont called attention on the 5th to a very singular fact in connection with the recognition of Calderon's Government. This recognition was the starting-point of Mr. Blaine's great diplomatic campaign. In a condition of general anarchy there was, of course, great difficulty in making any reasonable protest against the Chilians settling the terms of peace for themselves, and he considered it of the first importance that there should be some organized government in Peru, through which negotiations for a peace could be carried on. But the first question to be decided was, whether there was in existence any such government as Calderon's, in the possession of physical force sufficient to preserve order and give protection to life and property. Now Mr. Blaine was not without information as to this, for on May 5 of last year he received from Mr. Christiancy, who then represented the United States at Lima, a letter summing up the situation as follows: "The overwhelming majority of the people of Peru are opposed to the provisional Gov-

ernment (Calderon's) and still adhere to Pierola, and at present, if the Chilian Army should leave to-morrow, the only safety of the members of the provisional Government would be to leave with them." For four days Mr. Blaine meditated on this despatch, and then on May 9 he sent a despatch to Mr. Christiancy informing him that he had received Mr. Elmore as the "confidential agent" of this very "provisional Government," and telling him that if Calderon "was supported by the character and intelligence" of Peru, and was really "endeavoring to restore constitutional government," he might recognize him. This, coming in reply to his description of the Government as having no basis of any kind, Mr. Christiancy took as a hint that Mr. Blaine wanted Calderon recognized, and he obeyed orders, and in this way the State Department recognized as *de facto* a Government which it had just been informed through the regular channels had no existence in fact.

Mr. Gladstone's Ministry has received another trying blow in its defeat on an amendment mitigating the severity of the Repression Bill. As the bill stood it gave the police the right to search any house in the night or the day. In compliance with the remonstrances both of the Irish and the Radicals, he agreed to amend it by limiting this right to the daytime, except in cases in which there was reasonable ground for believing that a secret society was in session. The Tories and Whigs, however, would hear of no such concession, and they defeated the amendment, with the aid of renegade Liberals, by 207 to 194. This result was evidently due to its being unexpected. The whips did not expect the opposition, and counted on the support of the Irish who a few days previously had been suspended, and now revenged themselves by retiring to the gallery, and leaving the Premier to fight it out as best he could. The majority is small, it is true, but it is significant, because it is in part made up of Mr. Gladstone's own followers, on whom he had a right to count. It weakens him seriously, if it does not presage his resignation at no distant date. In fact, we should probably have heard of his retirement if it were not for the condition of Ireland and the crisis in Egypt, which would make either a change of Ministry or a dissolution of Parliament highly inconvenient.

The frequent interviews between the Sultan of Turkey and our Minister, General Wallace, attract great attention, and are even said to cause some excitement—at Constantinople, not here. It is a comfortable thing, after all, to have our foreign affairs in the hands of "old-fashioned statesmen," who are very certain to abstain from wild ventures. If Mr. Blaine were still Secretary of State, everybody would be apprehensive of some brilliant mischief. With Mr. Frelinghuysen in the State Department, General Wallace's mysterious conversations with the Grand Turk excite at most a little mild curiosity as to what the two gentlemen may have been talking about. There is no fear of "entangling alliances," and that sort of thing, as long as Washington's Farewell Address pre-

sides over our Foreign Office. The probability is that the Sultan wants to hear from General Wallace all he knows about torpedoes. After one of these interviews he is reported to have ordered the purchase of a lot of 200 of Mr. Berdan's manufacture. This would indicate that their talks are more likely to result in mercantile contracts than in diplomatic understandings. There will be no harm in this as long as our diplomatic representatives remain entirely disinterested parties in a pecuniary as well as international point of view.

General Skobelev is dead, and it would be difficult to exaggerate his loss to a power like Russia, which has a very large Army and no good school of generals. The Russian Army is, as regards the high commands, very much in the condition in which the English Army was before the Crimean war, and to a less extent is still, and in which the Austrian Army was before Sadowa, and to a certain extent is still. That is to say, advancement above the brigadierships depends largely on Court favor, or family connection, or social influence of some kind, and in a very small degree on military qualities. The consequence has been in the case of all these three Powers during the whole of the present century that their campaigns have usually been disastrous or fruitless in the beginning, until, supposing the Army to have received an utterly crushing blow, as at Sadowa, the stern ordeal of war had weeded out the courtiers and brought the soldiers to the front. It was in this way that Wellington reached to the top in England, after several years of blundering, and it was somewhat in this way that Skobelev came to be known in the late campaign on the Danube.

The value to one of the aristocratic armies of a general who has been proved, is, therefore, very great—indeed, almost inestimable. It means that as long as he is not too old, the next war will begin warily, skilfully, and without huge failures or disasters. Skobelev was such a general to Russia. He had, too, come to the surface in the very prime of life, for he was under forty when he died, and had given probably more promise than any other young soldier of this century since Napoleon. What perhaps endeared him more than aught else to the Russian popular imagination was that he had made a display of the thing which is most dazzling in the military character, but of which Russian military annals contain but few examples—calculated audacity. The Russian Army has, ever since it made its appearance in European fields, been renowned for its steadiness, and for the tenacity with which it clings to the ground it occupies. But, except Suvoroff, it has produced none of the thunderbolts of war by which the national fancy is most impressed, and which seem to set science itself on fire with the fighting passion. Skobelev was one of these. He was the only man in the Russian Army who seemed capable of taking it up and literally hurling it on the enemy; and probably in the next great war he will in many a trying hour be tearfully remembered.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, July 5 to TUESDAY, July 11, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Senate, on Wednesday, voted to postpone till December next the consideration of a national bankrupt law.

The River and Harbor Bill, as it was reported by the Committee on Commerce, in the Senate, showed an increase of more than \$1,000,000 in the aggregate amount appropriated by the bill as it passed the House of Representatives. The total amount recommended is more than \$19,000,000. The Senate spent the week in discussing the bill. The appropriation for the Hennepin Canal caused considerable debate. It was voted on Saturday to postpone the appropriation for the canal until a definite estimate of its cost could be obtained by a careful survey. An amendment was offered on Saturday, appropriating \$500,000 for the improvement of the Potomac River flats at Washington and Georgetown. It was adopted on Monday.

At a caucus of Republican Senators on Friday it was agreed to consider speedily the House bill for the reduction of internal-revenue taxation, and to prepare amendments to it, providing for a restoration of the tariff duties on sugar which were in force before the last change—the effect being to reduce the duty about twenty-five per cent.; also amendments for the reduction of duties \$8 per ton on Bessemer steel, and for a reduction on hoop-iron. The effect of this action by the caucus will be a prolongation of the session, as a long tariff debate is inevitable. Amendments in accordance with the resolution have been introduced in the Senate.

The bill for the expenses growing out of the illness and burial of the late President Garfield, as it finally passed the Senate, reduces the appropriation from \$75,000 to \$57,500, and the amount for medical services from \$52,500 to \$5,000. The President's physicians were severely criticised by Senator Vest, of Missouri, during the debate on the bill.

On Monday the Senate passed the House bill providing for a building in Brooklyn for the accommodation of the Post-office, Internal Revenue, and other Government offices, at a cost for site and buildings of \$800,000.

Senator Frye, of Maine, has presented in the Senate a petition from the Board of Trade of that State, urging Congress to provide a Commission to inquire into the wants of the national mercantile marine, and to report such measures as would tend to the relief of this industry.

The debate on the Naval Appropriation Bill, which was continued last week, led to several warm passages-at-arms between members of the House of Representatives. On Wednesday an amendment was adopted which strikes out of the original bill the proviso limiting to \$400,000 the amount to be applied to the repair of wooden ships, and provides that such repairs shall not exceed thirty per cent. of the estimated cost of a new vessel of the same size and like material. During the debate on an amendment to reduce the amount for the Bureau of Construction and Repair, Mr. Belmont, of this city, took occasion to review the South American policy of our Government. In his speech, severely criticising Mr. Blaine's "spirited" foreign policy, he said: "The diplomacy of this country from March to December, 1881, went far enough in the interest of the claimants and speculators upon Peruvian territory. . . . A hundred iron-clads in the harbor of Callao could not retrieve the unfortunate position in which this Government was placed by its State Department." \$1,750,000 was finally appropriated to the Bureau of Construction and Repair, and any part of this sum not required for the specified purposes shall be devoted to the construction of two new cruising vessels of war. On Thursday afternoon, Mr. Robeson, of New Jersey, took the floor to close the debate, and devoted an hour

to the vindication of his administration as Secretary of the Navy. He denounced in the bitterest language those who had criticised him, especially alluding in terms of personal abuse to Mr. Whitthorne, of Tennessee, who, as Chairman of Naval Committees in former Congresses, had been a persistent critic. Mr. Whitthorne made an angry reply. The bill finally passed the House, by a vote of 119 to 75.

After the passage of the Naval Bill, the Sunday Civil Appropriation Bill was taken up in the House of Representatives. The bill appropriates about \$23,500,000. During the debate on Thursday afternoon, Mr. Bayne, a Pennsylvania Republican, made a telling attack upon President Arthur's use of the patronage, and coupled it with a plea for civil-service reform. In the course of the debate on Friday, Mr. Butterworth, an Ohio Stalwart, defended the Administration against Mr. Bayne's charges. He averred that never since the days of Washington had appointments been more carefully and judiciously made than by President Arthur. The speech led to an angry colloquy with Mr. Cox, of New York. The appropriation for the Board of Health, included in the bill, is very small, but an amendment was adopted on Saturday including small-pox among the diseases to be investigated by the Board. An amendment, by Mr. Bayne, of Pennsylvania, appropriating \$25,000 to enable the President to carry out the provision of the Revised Statutes which authorizes a Civil-Service Commission, was lost, by a vote of 40 to 54.

The conference report on the bill to enable national banking associations to extend their corporate existence was presented in the House on Monday, and adopted, by a vote of 108 to 78.

The joint resolution, authorizing the President to call an International Conference, to fix on, and recommend for universal adoption, a common prime meridian, to be used in reckoning longitude and time throughout the world, passed a third reading in the House of Representatives on Thursday.

Mr. Deuster, of Wisconsin, has introduced in the House of Representatives a bill to regulate the carriage of passengers by sea, drawn up in accordance with the recommendations of President Arthur, in his recent message vetoing a similar bill.

At the first meeting of the Tariff Commission in Washington on Thursday, Mr. John L. Hayes, President, delivered the opening address. Commenting on the duties of the Commission, as set forth in the law establishing it, he said: "A radical or subversive change in the present general economic policy of the Government is virtually interdicted, and a judicious, not a revolutionary tariff, a revision, not a destruction of existing tariff laws, is declared to be the object to which our labors should conduce." The President was instructed to consult with the Secretary of the Treasury as to what expenses might be legitimately incurred. The Commission, in a body, called on President Arthur.

Secretary Folger has published a report in regard to the Doyle counterfeit bond plate, founded on an examination by experts. The report shows that the plate is counterfeit in every part, and that there could not have been any assistance rendered by employees of the Government, or any use made of the genuine plate.

Commodore Shufeldt, of the United States Navy, has been recalled from the command of the Asiatic Squadron. It is said that the recall was made at the request of the Chinese Government, which was offended at a critical letter written by the Commodore some months ago.

A statement having been made that Minister Lowell had tendered his resignation of the English Mission, an official denial was made at the White House and State Department on Thursday.

There is a dispute among the physicians who made the Guiteau autopsy. Dr. Lamb has made and published a report without submitting it to Drs. Sowers and Hartigan, who assisted in the work, and they accuse him of going beyond his authority. The published report is technical in its terms and in detail. It reveals nothing new as to the sanity or insanity of the assassin.

It is asserted in Washington that the body of Guiteau has been disinterred from its grave in the jail, and secretly conveyed to the Army Medical Museum, in that city.

Chairman Hubbell, of the Republican Congressional Campaign Committee, has written another letter to Mr. George William Curtis, President of the Civil-Service Reform Association, in which he denies that any office-holder is coerced into the payment of political assessments, and asserts that as long as election frauds continue in the South, he will continue to ask for these contributions from office-holders to maintain a Republican organization strong enough to prevent or diminish these outrages.

Notwithstanding the correspondence between Mr. Curtis and Mr. Hubbell, it is said that Government employees are sending in their assessments as freely as on previous occasions. The Navy-yards have responded with especial promptness. Southern postmasters have occasionally declined to contribute.

The Grand Jury convened at Washington on Monday to consider new evidence in the Star-route cases, which it is rumored will implicate a present United States Senator.

North Carolina Democrats, in their Convention on Wednesday, nominated R. T. Bennett for Congressman-at-large, and in their platform made the color-line the keynote of the campaign.

The Arkansas Republicans have nominated W. D. Slack for Governor. The platform opposes repudiation.

It is believed that the Stalwart Republican candidates in Pennsylvania will present their resignations at the next meeting of the State Central Committee, and leave it to the discretion of the Committee to take whatever action they think best for the good of the party.

A duel between two Georgia editors, Col. Lamar, of the *Macon Telegraph*, and Col. Howell, of the *Atlanta Constitution*, was averted last week by the arrest of the latter, with his second.

Michael Davitt, the Irish agitator, was given a reception by the Central Labor League of New York, Brooklyn, and Jersey City, in Union Square on Wednesday evening. About 10,000 persons were present.

The strike of the freight-handlers in the yards of the great railways leading to this city still continues, but the new hands employed have acquired more skill in their work, and there is less freight than usual to handle, so that the business of this city is not much impeded at present.

Crop reports from the West still continue favorable, though there are some discouraging accounts of the prospects in the "corn belt." The wheat harvest is in progress in many of the States, and an extraordinary yield seems to be assured.

The peach crop for that part of the State of Delaware traversed by the Delaware Railroad is estimated at 5,000,000 baskets.

By the collision of the tug-boat *John Lomas* with the excursion steamer *Scioto* on the Ohio River, near Mingo Junction, on July 4, more than seventy-five lives were lost. 700 passengers were on board the *Scioto*, which sank in three minutes. Intoxication of the boat's officers is said to have been the prime cause of the disaster.

The thirty-seventh annual session of the New York State Teachers' Association was held last week in Yonkers. About 200 delegates were present.

Mr. R. C. Watson, the referee, has adjudged the Columbia College crew entitled to the flags for which Columbia and Harvard were to have contested on July 3, at New London, Conn. He holds that Columbia kept the original agreement.

John Gilbert, the veteran actor of Wallack's company, was taken suddenly and seriously ill at his summer home in Manchester, N. H., on Wednesday night. He is very weak, but it is believed that he will recover. On Saturday his physician pronounced him out of danger.

FOREIGN.

The Egyptian crisis rapidly approached its climax during the past week. On Thursday afternoon, Admiral Seymour, of the British fleet, sent an ultimatum to the authorities of Alexandria, demanding the instant stoppage of the construction of the earth-works, under threat of opening fire from the fleet. The Sultan telegraphed the same day, holding the Khedive and Ministry responsible for the consequences of not yielding to the English Admiral's demand. The work was, however, continued, notwithstanding a denial on the part of Ragheb Pasha, until Friday morning, when it was stopped. On Saturday the Conference agreed on a formal invitation to the Porte to intervene in Egypt, and urged a reply before Wednesday. If the Porte refuses, or seems afraid to accept, 25,000 men will be concentrated by the intervening Powers, with a reserve of 75,000. The army will land at Aboukir, and will be divided into two parts. One will march on Alexandria. The other part will seize the railway at Dammanhour, Arabi Pasha's only means of retreat, and will thus force him to fight or yield.

After apparently ceasing work on the fortifications of Alexandria for a number of hours, it was defiantly resumed, and Admiral Seymour was forced to extreme measures. Early on Monday morning he addressed a note to the Egyptian Government, demanding the temporary surrender of the forts at Alexandria for the purpose of allowing of their disarmament. He added that if the demand was not complied with within twenty-four hours, he would open fire on the city from the fleet. All vessels of neutral fleets were warned to leave the harbor; the captains of the British vessels were given their final instructions as to the details of the bombardment; the Eastern Telegraph Company transferred its office on board a ship; and every preparation was made for the first act of war. Throughout the day the Egyptians kept busily at work on their fortifications, and the military expressed their determination of fighting to defend the forts to the last, and then retiring to the interior of Egypt, where the preparations for resistance are complete.

When Tuesday morning came, no reply had been received to Admiral Seymour's demand. The penalty was then executed. At seven o'clock the bombardment was begun by the *Alexandra*, *Sultan*, and *Superb*. The batteries from the forts at once replied, but their shot fell short. These three vessels were soon joined in the cannonade by the *Inflexible*, *Téméraire*, *Penelope*, *Invincible*, and *Monarch*. Twenty minutes of such work sufficed to silence two of the forts. Great excitement prevailed among the inhabitants of Alexandria, and crowds hastened to seek refuge in the Palace. Soon the streets became deserted. The military, however, remained firm, though the forts slackened fire. About nine o'clock Fort Marsa el Kanat was blown up; the top of a tower at Fort Pharos was carried away, and many guns in that and other forts were dismounted. As the day progressed the fire from the Egyptians was less frequent. At noon the magazine of Fort Ada was blown up, and four forts in all had been destroyed. An hour later and not an exposed gun on any fort could return the fire of the fleet. The Moncrieffe Battery and Pharos Fort were completely silenced, and by 6 o'clock all the forts, except one or two inside the harbor, were equally powerless. At

6:50 o'clock Admiral Seymour suspended the bombardment for the day.

At the end of the first day's bombardment the casualties on the British fleet were five killed and twenty-seven wounded. The effect of the Egyptian shot upon the vessels of the fleet was almost inappreciable, except in one instance, where the *Inflexible* was penetrated. The men were mostly wounded by splinters. One of the events of the attack was the landing of twelve officers and men from the *Invincible*, under cover of the fire of the *Condor* and *Bittern*. They succeeded in destroying with dynamite the heavy guns of Fort Mex.

The Sultan has rejected the proposal of the Council of Ministers to appoint a delegate to the Conference. He complains of the lack of friendship shown him by England.

The cost to England of armed intervention in Egypt is estimated at more than \$20,000,000. Orders have been given in India to prepare a force of 1,800 English and 5,000 native troops, including three batteries of artillery, for Egypt. Large siege-trains have been organized at Agra and Bombay.

Admiral Conrad, of the French fleet at Alexandria, has been instructed to remain passive, and only participate if provoked by some act or incident. M. de Freycinet, the French Premier, stated in the Chamber of Deputies, on Thursday, that France's preparations do not exceed the limit of necessary precautions, and that the consent of the Legislature would be asked before intervention should ensue. The French Agent at Alexandria has been instructed to do his utmost to prevent hostilities.

On Saturday the Government submitted a request to the Chamber of Deputies for a credit of 7,800,000 francs, for precautionary naval preparations.

A Montenegrin aimed a pistol at the Khedive on Thursday, but he was seized before he could discharge the weapon. He said that he mistook the Khedive for Arabi Pasha.

Five thousand Egyptians, under General Yu-uf, have attacked the False Prophet and been defeated, losing 2,000 men. The False Prophet, with 7,000 men, is marching on Sennaar.

Mr. Gladstone met with an unexpected rebuff in the House of Commons on Friday afternoon. During the general debate on the Repression Bill, Mr. Trevelyan, Chief Secretary for Ireland, offered an amendment to limit the right of search to the day-time, except in the case of secret societies. The Conservatives strongly opposed it. Mr. Gladstone declared that if the amendment was rejected he would have to consider his personal position. The Parnellites were not on the floor, but eight of them viewed the contest from the gallery, and refused to descend and vote. A number of Liberals were absent, not expecting any controversy over the bill. The ballot was taken and the amendment lost, by a vote of 194 to 207. Mr. Gladstone said that under ordinary circumstances he would have asked the House to postpone further proceedings, but in the remarkable state of Ireland he did not think it was right to take that course. Report on the bill was, therefore, finished at 11 p. m., and it then passed the third reading. On the same evening it passed its first reading in the House of Lords. The defeat of Mr. Gladstone caused considerable excitement in political circles, but even Conservative organs did not consider it a sufficient cause for a resignation of the Ministry, or dissolution of Parliament. Mr. Gladstone has decided to accept the decision of the House of Commons.

The Repression Bill passed its second reading in the House of Lords on Monday afternoon. In the House of Commons, Mr. Gladstone, commenting on his rebuff, said that the defeat of the Government was unprecedented. The Government would use discretion in employing the powers given them by the Repression Bill, and he hoped it would not be necessary to employ all of them. Outlining his programme, he said that he had abandoned the

hope of passing any of the bills mentioned in the Queen's speech, on the opening of Parliament, except the Corrupt Practices Bill. He said that it would be impossible to amend the Land Bill now, and, consequently, after the passage of the Repression and Arrears Bills, he should ask for an adjournment, probably until the latter part of October, Parliament then to meet for the purpose of discussing procedure only. He declined to answer any questions as to the Government's intentions in the question of procedure.

In the House of Lords on Tuesday the Repression Bill passed through Committee and its third reading without a division.

On Thursday night the House of Commons went into Committee on the Arrears of Rent Bill for Ireland, after a strong speech in its favor by Mr. John Bright. He expressed confidence in Mr. Gladstone's estimate of the cost and the means of defraying it from the Church surplus. He deprecated the manner in which the opponents of the bill had referred to the Land Act of 1881; expressed astonishment at the opposition of the Irish members to the emigration clause; believed that if the country became more tranquil the purchase clauses would go into extensive operation; approved the method of making advances, and declared he did not believe that the Land Act was a failure.

The Archbishops and Bishops of Ireland have issued a circular to the priests, directing them to discountenance the Ladies' Land League.

The famous Russian General Skobelev died suddenly at Moscow of heart disease on Friday morning. He was only thirty-nine years of age. He was noted for his bravery and for the originality and daring of his campaigns. His career in Bulgaria was especially successful and romantic. Last winter he came into unenviable prominence through an indiscreet speech made in Paris, in which he avowed Slavist sentiments and hatred to the Germans. The speech led to strained relations between Russia and Germany. Skobelev was publicly rebuked by the Czar. He was buried on Monday.

Count Tolstoi, Russian Minister of the Interior, has instructed the frontier authorities to do all that is possible to facilitate the return of the Jews.

Nine thousand copies of a revolutionary proclamation, signed by a cousin of the Czar, were discovered on Thursday at the Ministry of Marine in St. Petersburg. Immediately after the discovery, the Director of the Department committed suicide.

A new Bulgarian Ministry has been constituted, with General Soboleff as President.

The Sultan of Turkey has presented General Lew Wallace, the United States Minister at Constantinople, with a handsome painting.

The Pope, in an allocution at the Consistory last week, said that the position of the Church in Italy was becoming worse than ever. He declared that the Italian Government was guilty of bad faith in refusing exequaturs to twenty Bishops whom he had nominated.

Two-thirds of the French Senate Committee on the Divorce Bill are opposed to the measure.

The principal leaders of the insurrection in Uruguay have been killed.

The total receipts of the Custom-houses of the island of Havana during the past fiscal year were \$10,445,656, being a decrease of \$1,460,284 as compared with the receipts during the preceding fiscal year.

The Amateur Rowing Association of Henley, England, decided on Wednesday not to admit the Hillsdale, Michigan, crew to races at the annual regatta as amateurs, in accordance with the English definition of that term. At the Marlow regatta, on Saturday, the Hillsdales beat the Marlow crew by a clear length. The Metropolitan and Mousley Committees have also decided against admitting them.

THE GLADSTONE MINISTRY.

THE Gladstone Ministry has reached its meridian in two years, which is sooner than was expected, considering the size of the majority on which it came into power and the enthusiasm with which its advent was hailed. The beginning of the descent to which all ministries come sooner or later, was marked on Saturday unmistakably by Mr. Gladstone's formal submission to the adverse vote on the search amendment in the Irish Repression Bill. The first acceptance of defeat is a confession that the period of vigorous aggressiveness is past, and that the Ministry has begun to stay in power, not so much because it has work to do as because nobody else is ready to take its place, or because the majority dread a general election. In the present House of Commons no Ministry but the Gladstone Ministry is possible. The Tories cannot count either on the recalcitrant Whigs or on the Irish any more than Mr. Gladstone can, although they get occasional help from them in harassing him. Every one knows there can be no new combination without an appeal to the country by a dissolution, and it does not appear that anybody is ready for this. It would mean a period of confusion and uncertainty, amounting to a real interregnum, at a moment of great national difficulty. The Irish question is far from settled, because it has to be settled in Ireland, and not in London, and the Egyptian question, which is but a small one when one considers only the suppression of Arabi Bey and his army, is an enormous and far-reaching one when one asks what is to succeed Arabi Bey and his army, and who is to settle what it is to be. In fact, the crisis is one in which a change of Ministry would be a veritable "swapping of horses when crossing the stream," to use that phrase of Lincoln's which has had more success than any other of his *mots*, and has now become a stock political illustration in every constitutional country.

The Ministry will, therefore, in the absence of any great catastrophe, such as the breakdown of Mr. Gladstone's health, run on probably two or three years longer, somewhat in the condition of what the French call a business Ministry, without force enough or unity enough to face any of the great measures of reform, such as the assimilation of the county franchise, or the reorganization of county government, or the creation of the new municipality of the city of London, which occupied prominent places in their programme when they took office. In fact, while we are writing there comes the rumor that Mr. Gladstone already contemplates resigning the leadership of the House of Commons, which would of course devolve on the Marquis of Hartington—a change which would certainly bring the Ministry no access of strength, though it might conciliate some of the more mutinous Whigs. It would indeed give the Cabinet still more plainly the character of a stop-gap.

This step of Mr. Gladstone's, if taken, will probably be due to his own recognition, which he half expressed the other night after his defeat, that a good deal of the hostility to his Ministry is in reality hostility to him person-

ally. This has now really become a prominent factor in British politics, and yet any one who undertook to write the history of his administration, and had no materials but the newspapers of the period, would find it impossible to give any adequate explanation of it. The London Tory press exhibits it in a most rabid form, but it never furnishes what will appear to an outsider sufficient excuse for it. In fact, considering the hold that Gladstone has on the masses and on the religious middle class, the descriptions given of him in such papers as the *Saturday Review* and the *St. James's Gazette* appear to a foreign reader like humorous caricatures. But that these papers fairly express the feeling toward him of the bulk of the Tory members of the House, and that their language is but a very mild reproduction of that used about him in the Conservative sporting and military clubs, and in Conservative drawing-rooms, there is no doubt. Lord Salisbury's savage vituperation of him, which is unprecedented as directed by the leader of one English party against the leader of another, is but the terse editorial expression of the view of Lord Salisbury's social set.

This personal hatred of Gladstone, which in the Tory mind now almost takes the place of a political programme, is one of the most striking signs of the great change which is unquestionably impending in British politics. It does not resemble any other force which has hitherto influenced British affairs, and it does strikingly resemble the feelings which French Legitimists have ever since 1793 entertained toward Liberal and Republican leaders. Gladstone is detestable and detested because he represents that great flow of sentiment into politics which always follows democratization. He has never got over the loathing caused among the Whigs and Tories ten years ago by the phrase used in advocating the claims of the workingmen to the franchise—that they are "your own flesh and blood." Worse than this, he has recognized the fact, which the English gentry find it still difficult to believe or grasp, that the power in England has passed to the borough voters. His speeches are addressed to this class. It is to its religion and morality and to its social and political ideals that he appeals on the stump and in Parliament, and it recognizes him as its leader, and indeed one may say its apostle.

To understand how exasperating this is in Tory circles, it must be remembered that the theory on which Disraeli educated his followers into passing the Reform Bill of 1867 was that the newly-enfranchised voters would support the party to which they owed their enfranchisement, in obedience to a familiar political tradition, and that by making this "great leap in the dark" a Conservative measure it would cause no change beyond giving Tory chiefs larger popular support. It has made a prodigious change, however. It has brought a new power into politics, which is as yet only half felt, but of which only the Liberals get the benefit, and of which Gladstone, in the last stage of his career, is the chief representative. He represents, too, one other change which is well calculated to make a man obnoxious—and that is earnestness in politics.

He has succeeded Palmerston, who had set in the Liberal party the *insouciant*, jocosely tone about public affairs, and was in this ably seconded by Disraeli in the Tory party. Between the two, they had made the generation of English politicians which is now growing old, decidedly the most nonchalant since the Reform Bill. To this generation the appearance of Gladstone as a sort of John the Baptist—wearing camel's hair, living on locusts and wild honey, and giving notice of the coming of a new ruler—is disgusting in the extreme, and their anger is the bitter, grotesque, and noisy anger of the powerless and helpless.

The last though not the least of his offences is that he has, though perhaps unwittingly, laid open the Irish ulcer to the very bone, and demonstrated its incurability by any of the processes hitherto employed. It is owing to his feverish activity that the English public has been got to face the Irish problem as it has never faced it before, and ask itself for the first time since the Union whether it is possible for it to govern Ireland as it has been governed. The orthodox English view of the question for the past eighty years has been that expressed by Canning, when he cried, "Repeal the Union—restore the Heptarchy!" That view has clearly passed away, and its passing away is largely due to Gladstone's restless experimentation. He does not leave behind a contented or peaceful Ireland, but he leaves an Ireland which no English statesman of either party can hereafter dispose of by an Arms Bill or Repression Bill.

BOOKS ABOUT HEALTH.

THERE is no branch of literature in our day in which the activity is more constant than that devoted to popular instruction in the art of keeping healthy. There are periodicals devoted to it exclusively. Every year half a dozen books make their appearance, mainly at this season, telling us what to eat, drink, and avoid, how to live long, how to escape sickness, with sub-directions telling us how to chew, what time to go to bed, how many blankets we should sleep under, what sized pillow we should use, what time to rise, the proper temperature of our bath, how to rub ourselves on getting out of it, how often we should wash our feet, how much exercise we should take, and at what hour we should take it, what we should wear next our skin, and what kind of hat we should wear in summer. In fact, most of the books on health now closely resemble in minuteness of information the useful little manuals for mothers, regarding the care and treatment of children in the nursery, with which the world has so long been familiar. The adult who chooses to avail himself of them, consequently, need never take the smallest step in the care of his person without the best medical advice. There is nothing, from the brushing of his teeth in the morning to the blowing out of his candle at night, which he may not perform under professional judgment, without looking into the strictly technical books at all.

From one point of view the abundance of this hygienic literature is an excellent sign, because it shows the rapidly-increasing attention of the medical profession to the art of prevention,

which will probably before many years greatly overshadow, if it does not supersede, the art of cure, and which there is no doubt has of late outstripped the art of cure in efficacy, and stands higher in the estimation of all the older doctors. Telling people what to eat, drink, and wear, and how to work and play in any particular climate, is simply advising them, in Darwinian phrase, to adapt themselves to their environment so as to escape the remorseless law of natural selection, which makes such short work of those lower animals which pay no attention to hygiene, or are born with feeble constitutions or the wrong color. But then there is the danger of giving people more advice about their bodies than their minds can bear, and to this the literary doctors are undoubtedly exposing us. They have done much good, especially among the women, who fifty years ago lived in violation of even the elementary rules of a healthy existence. They have improved people's food and clothing a good deal, and have almost effected a revolution in popular habits in the matter of ventilation, for instance. But in the minuteness of the directions they are now giving about exercise, digestion, bathing, and the like, they are either deepening the morbid streak in the human mind, or leading people into mistaken and often injurious experimentation. Nothing, for instance, is more prejudicial to health than too much thought about health, and this the health literature of the day undoubtedly tends to foster. In fact, that it does not do more mischief among the men is probably due to the fact that most of them are so busy that they have no time to study their own sensations. An idle man who tried to regulate his life by the rules of any popular health manual, and watched the effect of his regulated food and his regulated exercise, would almost certainly become a hypochondriac; and that many who start with some trifling constitutional weakness do become hypochondriacs in this way, there is little doubt. In fact, with regard to the body, as with regard to the soul, there is much danger in casuistry, and rules of health are very apt to be the casuistry of the body. A man who ran to a spiritual director every day to find out the exact moral quality of each of his acts, and its bearing on his spiritual health, would soon find that there was but little spiritual health left in him, and the man who is constantly asking himself whether this or that is good for his body, and getting his answer out of a guide-book, is very likely to have an analogous experience. In fact, so true is this, that one of the conditions of health may be said to be the diversion of the mind from all thoughts about disease.

Another defect in the kind of literature of which we are speaking is the too great absoluteness of its teachings. There are but few health books, if any, read by the young. The young are generally well, and generally indisposed to introspection, either mental or physical. They find they can eat anything at any hour, and they find that the proper amount of exercise for them is the amount they like to take. They are not interested in indigestion, or sleeplessness, or any of the other ills for which the books seek to provide. If one happens to be with a party

of young men in which the subject of food, or drink, or clothing comes up, one finds that it is discussed wholly from the standpoint of taste. They exchange views about what they like and dislike, and are immensely bored by observations on the hygienic quality of their tastes. Rules of health, in fact, are seldom perused or called for by any body below the age of forty—at which, as the proverb says, "every man is a fool or a physician"—that is, he is either a person on whom health preaching would be wasted, as it would be on a cow or a horse, or a person who has through experience accumulated a body of hygienic doctrine of his own which no doctor can shake. Go into any company of middle-aged men, and listen to a discussion of meat or clothing, and you find that the question of healthfulness dominates the discussion. Each man's contribution to it is apt to be in the main an account of his own experience of what "agrees" with him; that is, he passes judgment on food, on dress, on exercise, on bathing, on hours of sleep, according to his experience of his subsequent physical sensations. It is this class, in fact, which buys and reads most of the health books, because it is most interested in morbid conditions of the body. But it makes the health books, with their *ex-cathedra* tone, very strange guides, when we discover that in such a company as we have mentioned probably no two men's experience is the same about anything. One finds unlimited cucumbers most refreshing, another the smallest piece of cucumber deadly poison. One finds tea late in the evening necessary to a good night's rest; another finds tea later than five o'clock in the afternoon fatal to sleep on the following night. One finds a light breakfast the best preparation for a good day's work and a sure cure for rheumatism; another finds a hearty breakfast indispensable to any activity, either mental or bodily, and the only safeguard against dyspepsia. One cannot dine later than two P. M.; another is miserable if he dines before seven. One cannot drink coffee; another finds coffee essential. Early rising clears one man's brain; it makes another stupid and incapable all day. One finds a daily cold bath the making of him; another tried it once and nearly died of it. One needs two hours' daily exercise for any effective brainwork; another finds the less he takes the better he thinks. So it is about tobacco and about alcohol, and about bed blankets and about woollen undershirts, and about almost every habit, article of diet, or of clothing. Not only are there, in the matter of physical health, as many tastes as there are men, but apparently nearly as many requirements. In fact, if we go behind the health books to the sources from which the authors extract their conclusions, we shall find that almost the only certain and unsailable rule of hygiene, which will bear universal application, is that pure air is good for the human animal, and that the more of it he has the better. All else is doubtful and disputed, or weakened by inscrutable peculiarities of individual constitution.

BUDDHIST ARCHÆOLOGY.

THE study of the sculptures and inscriptions found upon Buddhist rails and stūpas, or tope, recently discovered in India, has brought to light many curious circumstances relating to the early history of the Buddhist religion. There are three ruins which have been especially examined, and their history is now pretty well known to us. Taking them in order, we have the tope at Sanchi, near Bhilsa; the tope of Amarāvati on the River Kistna, and the tope of Bharahut 120 miles southwest of Allahabad. It is needless to refer to the way in which these ruins were first discovered. We are indebted for our immediate knowledge of them to Mr. James Fergusson ('Tree and Serpent Worship'), and to General Alexander Cunningham ('The Tope of Bharhut').

When the account of the Sanchi tope was first published, so little was known of the meaning of the sculptured scenes on the pillars and rails that Mr. Fergusson wrote his book with a view to illustrate the old superstition of 'Tree and Serpent Worship.' Buddhism, in fact, was not understood, and consequently no explanation could be given of the scenes wrought with so much care and such surprising skill on the stone pillars and gateways of the topes. But now we understand that the worship is not paid to the tree or to the serpent, but that the tree is symbolical of the presence of Buddha, and that the vāgas, or serpents, are not being worshipped, but themselves engaged in adoring the presence of the Great Teacher. It is an important fact to have established, that, at this remote period and among these people, such worship was supposed possible—viz., the veneration of a presence not visible, but yet real.

Mr. Fergusson, in the first edition of his great work, supposed that many of the scenes depicted represented interviews or relations between Aryans and Dasyus—i. e., between the newcomers into India and the old native races. This was the only explanation he could give of the differences in dress and appearance of the persons drawn in the scenes. It was a discovery of some importance, therefore, when Mr. Beal explained the scenes to be descriptive of events that had occurred in the history of Buddha himself. These stone-cut pictures are, in fact, records of various episodes that make up the life of Buddha, or else of events in his previous history. Among other notable instances of his self-denial is one given in many Buddhist books of an occasion when he sacrificed his possessions, his wife and children, for the sake of perfecting himself in the virtue of charity. This scene we find sculptured at Sanchi on the Northern Gateway, and the explanation of this became the key to much that followed. Gradually, it was found that the groups on the pillars, etc., were throughout descriptive of different scenes more or less familiar to the student of Buddhism, and that there was scarcely one of them that could not be thus explained.

This once admitted, we are able to refer these events, and the history in which they occur, to a period some time previous to the date of the tope. This is a satisfactory standpoint. As long as the records of Buddhism were fixed, as to date, only by literary evidence, there was always doubt and uncertainty. But now we rest on evidence of another kind: the style of architecture and the form of the very letters engraved on the stone afford a test which, in the hand of experts, cannot mislead us. We have, then, at Sanchi evidence that the birth and career of Buddha, as now related to us in books, were accepted and believed at the beginning of our era throughout central India, at

least. If we consider the meaning of this, we shall understand its importance. For instance, on plate xxxiii. of 'Tree and Serpent Worship' (second edition) there is a scene representing the miraculous incarnation of the Buddha by the descent of an elephant upon his mother. This is a cardinal point in the history of Buddhism. If, then, we are sure that this sculpture is as old as the first century of our era (Fergusson, *in loco*), we need not doubt that the dogma of Buddha's miraculous incarnation dates from a pre-Christian period. The same result follows with respect to the entire legend or legendary history, and so we may dismiss the argument of Dr. Eitel (in his 'Three Lectures on Buddhism') and Dr. Flanders (in his 'Christ and Buddha'), with respect to the late origin of these quasi-Christian particulars, as insufficient.

Were there any need to confirm the date given for the Sanchi sculptures, we need only refer to the lately published account of the Bharahut tope by General Alexander Cunningham. This tope is assigned without any hesitation by the author to the third century B.C., and among the sculptures we have the incarnation scene (pl. xxviii.) as plainly described as at Sanchi. The impression left on the mind by a review of the evidence afforded us by the Sanchi and Bharahut topes is, that the legend of Buddha, including his incarnation, renunciation of the world, temptation, and enlightenment, is of an independent origin, and of greater age than the Christian Gospel history.

It may be asked, therefore, whence arose the striking parallel which this Eastern legend does certainly present when compared with the history of Christ. To this it appears there is a reasonable answer. It has just been discovered that at the time of Buddha's preaching there was a republic of Northern invaders (or immigrants) settled in the valley of the Ganges, and that these were during Buddha's lifetime converted to his doctrine. In plate xxviii., fig. 1 ('Tree and Serpent Worship') we have a scene in which these Northern people act the principal part. They are the same as the Yue-chi, or the "White Huns," of the Chinese accounts. They are a curly-haired, gaitered race, corresponding with the Scythians of history. Now, these Scythians were at first a small and obscure people, settled on the River Araxes (Diod. Sic., ii., 375), and, afterward increasing in numbers, were divided into various tribes, and advanced west and south to the River Tanais (Don) on the one hand, and through Arabia and Palestine on the other, into Egypt. They were the same as the Cuthians who settled in the neighborhood of Samaria. The name Scythæ is probably identical with the word Cuthæ, the sibilant *s* being prefixed as in numerous cases (*stûpa* for *tope*, *Scoti* for *Cotti*, *σπίκος* for *μικρος*, spike for pike, etc., etc.; the Sanscrit *var* and *sva* are identical). A portion of these Cuthians migrated into India, where they were known as *Sacæ*, and from these probably sprang the race of the *Sākya*s to whom Buddha belonged. These Scythians having their origin near the cradle of the human race, it is probable that they had preserved among them portions of the earliest traditions in the world's history, and among the rest fragments of a primitive belief in the birth of a Saviour or Deliverer, and his triumph over evil. There can be no doubt, or reasonable doubt, that such a primitive belief existed; and there is no reason why the knowledge of it should be confined to one family of the human race—i. e., the Semites. The Cushites (sons of Cush) also inherited the belief—perverted it may have become, but never eradicated; and so we are prepared to find it in a mutilated form, but yet strong even in its obscurity, springing up among and shaping the religious belief of the

descendants of the people among whom it was originally preserved. Hence we find it among the *Sākya*s of India, the Cushites of Samaria, and the Northern tribes who were scattered throughout the valley of the Ganges at the time of Buddha's advent. This explanation of the difficulty of the parallel features in the history of Buddhism and the Gospel narrative appears to be sufficient for all purposes. The existence of such traditional knowledge of the birth and triumph of a Saviour cannot by any argument be disproved, and the phenomena which present themselves in the existence of Buddhism at the present time exhibit the vitality of such a belief even in its imperfect form.

There is one curious point in the history of these Scythians, or Northerners, in the valley of the Ganges, which we cannot pass by without notice. They were republicans, occupying various important towns, of which the city of Vaisālī was chief. They were called the *Samvājīs*, or "United Vājīs." We are told, in an interesting episode that occurs in Buddhist literature, what their character and mode of government were. It is worth transcribing. So long, said Buddha, as the Vājīs hold full and frequent public assemblies, they will prosper. So long as the Vājīs meet together in concord and carry out their undertakings in concord; so long as they act in accordance with old institutions established in former days; so long as they honor, esteem, revere, and support their old men, and hold it a point of duty to listen to their words; so long as they give liberty to their women, and detain none among them by force; so long as they revere and support their religious edifices, and allow not the proper offerings and rites to fall into desuetude; so long as they protect, defend, and support their religious teachers, and allow others from a distance to enter their realm and live at ease among them—so long as they attend to these duties, they may be expected to prosper and not decline.

Here we have a picture of the polity ("free discussion" and "religious toleration" are two of the leading points) of these republicans before the Christian era. Doubtless much that we read in Strabo and Homer about the piety of the *Getæ* and the *Æthiopians* (the *Ye-tha* of the Chinese, the *Yue-chi* or *Sacæ*) may be accounted for in this way. They inherited religious traditions, and they had not let them slip; and from these traditions not only sprang the present fruit of a well-regulated government, but also the treasured belief in the birth of a Deliverer and Teacher, who should appear at the right time, and come as he had been promised, for the world's good.

In conclusion, it is remarkable to find in the Sanchi sculptures that the flag used by these republicans was one with "stars and Union Jack" combined. This can be seen in plates xxviii. and xxxviii. of Mr. Fergusson's work, and is thus described by that writer: "Their banner, with its 'stars and stripes,' or rather stars and Union Jack combined, may be local and peculiar to Sanchi" ('Tree and Serpent Worship,' p. 136, 2d ed.). But it is not peculiar to Sanchi; it is seen at Bharahut (plate xxxii., fig. 4), and it has been discovered—viz., by Mr. Beal in his examination of the *Brahmajāla Sūtra*—that this flag represents the Standard of Indra, the Lord of Heaven; the stars denoting the universe over which he rules, and the combined crosses the eight divisions of space. Thus the flag denotes the supremacy of Indra, as the "Lord of Heaven," over the field of creation. It is certainly one of the many remarkable coincidences which occur between Buddhism and modern history, that such a flag should have been adopted by the Sons of the *Sacæ*, united as a republic in India at this early period, as a

type of their combined nationality and their righteous government. *Faveat omen!*

PARALYSIS OF PARLIAMENTARY GOVERNMENT.

LONDON, June 29.

SIX weeks have now been spent over the Prevention of Crime Bill, as the new measure for checking outrages and conspiracy in Ireland is called, and the House of Commons has disposed of only half the clauses it contains. It is intended, as your readers will probably remember, to replace the act passed sixteen months ago, under Mr. Forster's auspices, by which the Irish Government was empowered to imprison without trial persons reasonably suspected of certain offences—an act under which outrages had not diminished, and which was regarded both in England and Ireland with constantly growing dislike. The present bill is in some respects a stronger, in others a milder measure. It is milder, in so far as it recognizes every man's right to be tried, permitting no prolonged arbitrary detention on mere suspicion. It is stronger in that it creates certain new offences which it empowers the local resident magistrates to try and punish, and provides for the trial of certain other offences by a commission of judges instead of by a jury whenever the Lord Lieutenant shall be of opinion that a fair trial cannot be had before a jury, besides conferring powers of searching houses, of arresting persons found after dark under suspicious circumstances, and of preventing public meetings thought dangerous to the public tranquillity. In fact, it almost amounts to a supplementary criminal code for Ireland; temporary, however, for its operation is limited to three years.

Although many of the provisions of this bill had been considered months ago, under Mr. Forster's reign, and it was to some extent prepared before the Phoenix Park murders, there can be little doubt that Mr. Gladstone's Government would not have brought it forward in its present form except under the pressure of that catastrophe, and of the horror and anger which it evoked in England. Nor would anything less than that catastrophe have enabled them to pass it, as they now seem likely to do, practically unmodified. The assassination of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke, coming so suddenly after the announcement of a policy of conciliation, and still more the failure of all attempts to discover its perpetrators, well known as they must have been to many persons in Dublin, brought to a head the rising indignation of the English upper and middle class at the impunity which crime has enjoyed in Ireland, and made them willing to adopt almost any means, however violent, for checking it. If the Government had proposed to suspend the ordinary law altogether, and hold drum-head courts-martial over Ireland, they would have found support from the whole Conservative party in the House of Commons, and from a good many of their own adherents. Those who disapprove of their present bill may be asked to remember that it is a far more gentle remedy than many influential voices demanded.

By the Nationalist party in the House of Commons—that is to say, by those thirty to forty Irish members who with more or less individual independence follow Mr. Parnell—it was of course received with vehement hostility. It came very opportunely for them, for Mr. Parnell was in some danger of being discredited with the extreme section of the Irish by his release from prison, after communications with Mr. Gladstone's Government in which he had expressed friendliness to them and a willingness to accept their remedial measures. An Irish leader holds

his post on condition of perpetual combat. He dares not conclude even a truce with what is called "the English Government." To attack and revile that Government, to impede and exasperate the English Parliament, are the main purposes for which he is sent to Westminster, and if he swerves from them, he is liable to be first deserted and then superseded in favor of some more violent and reckless partisan. The moment, therefore, at which Mr. Parnell showed the most statesmanlike view of the situation, and the greatest willingness to obtain by coöperation with the Government substantial benefits for Ireland, was the moment when he ran the greatest risk of losing his hold on his countrymen, or at least on that part of them which professes to act for the whole. Now, the Prevention of Crime Bill was so severe that it gave him fair ground for resuming his attitude of hostility, and enabled him, by the tenacious opposition which he and his friends have offered, to show that there was no compact between him and the Government, no abandonment of the old programme. In this opposition the Irish Nationalists did not at first stand alone. Many English members thought the bill needlessly severe. They were quite prepared, after the Dublin murders, to support any measure, however searching, which promised to grapple with the great evil and danger of the situation—namely, the difficulty, one may say the impossibility, of discovering the perpetrators of agrarian outrage. But they remarked that a comparatively small part of the bill dealt with this problem, a large part going rather to provide different modes of trying prisoners already detected, and heavier penalties for them if convicted. Hence, both on the second reading and in the first days of Committee, several Liberal members, belonging as well to the so-called Whig section as to the more advanced section, spoke, and a still greater number voted along with the Irish Nationalists against the Government. More than half the minority by which the proposal to try treason without a jury was resisted came from the Ministerial side. When, however, it became plain that the Nationalists were using all their resources to delay the passing of the bill by multiplying amendments, and by debating every amendment at immoderate length, the English Liberal Opposition became gradually silent. Admitting that some measure was called for, and perceiving that the Government, with the help of the Tories, was sure of carrying this one, they seem to have concluded that the sooner it was passed the better, and to have desired to dissociate themselves from the obstructive tactics which Mr. Parnell's followers were adopting.

These tactics have been much more skilful than they were upon Mr. Forster's Coercion Bill of sixteen months ago. There has been no obvious and deliberate talking against time, no dilatory motions, unless one can call by such a name the demand that sittings shall not continue later than one A. M. Hence there has never been a time when the chairmen of committees could fairly say that regular obstruction of the old type was being employed, or when the Government could insist that some extraordinary remedy should be applied. However, as not much more than half the bill has been despatched after nearly a month's work, the impatience of English and Scotch members, who see that this session is being utterly lost for all English and Scotch purposes, is becoming very great. Appeals are frequently made to the Government to propose the reenactment of the "Rules of Urgency" of last session, under which the Speaker becomes a temporary dictator, with power to guide the proceedings so as to save time and shorten discussion. But as the Irish members would take up four or five nights at least in dis-

cussing the proposal for urgency, it is not clear that much time would be gained by this expedient. Meantime, the sense of irritation, the indisposition to listen to anything, wise or foolish, from the Irish members, grows apace. Debate has become a mere wrangle between some five or six of them, reinforced occasionally by the others, and Sir William Harcourt, who, as Home Secretary and a lawyer, conducts the bill for the Government. Every line of the measure is fought, and no clause passed without several divisions.

The whole affair illustrates very completely the unsatisfactoriness of legislation by an English Parliament for Ireland. Very few of the English members know anything about the points that are raised by the Parnellite opposition. Most of them are of course content simply to follow the Government, and thus to abnegate their duty of taking an independent view of questions which are often really important. This naturally irritates the Irish members, and would be condemned by an observer from any other country. It is the reproach which Ireland always brings against the English Parliament. But, on the other hand, those Englishmen who desire to master the questions involved, and seek to make this new criminal code for Ireland a better code, get no real help from the Nationalist members, for the latter insist with equal vehemence on small points as on great ones, interperse their arguments with attacks on England and the Government which are usually irrelevant and sometimes insulting, and discuss everything at such inordinate length that human patience gives way. With plenty of ingenuity and cleverness in detail, they show little skill in the strategy of their whole campaign. Sometimes, indeed, people accuse them of not wishing to have any English help, but rather to increase the exasperation of the fiercer spirits in both countries by repelling all sympathy which comes from this side of the Channel, and so accelerating an ultimate separation.

While this is the state of things inside Parliament, the country outside has got tired of watching the House of Commons, and begins to think there must be something terribly wrong, either with representative government in general, or at least with our parliamentary machine. There has rarely been a Parliament from which so much was expected as from this one when it met in May, 1880. It contained an unusual number of energetic and experienced men. The majority which one party enjoyed in it was sufficiently large to make legislation seem easy. That majority was known to be firmly, indeed enthusiastically, attached to its leader. Foreign and colonial complications were disappearing, so that there was every prospect that the whole strength of the Legislature could be turned on to the work, which had lain in abeyance during Lord Beaconsfield's reign, of passing domestic measures of social and constitutional reform. Something was done in the first session, though a large part even of that session was spent on an Irish bill which the House of Lords ultimately rejected. But last session everything was sacrificed to the Irish Land Bill, and this year nothing will be accomplished. The country, which sees that the Liberals are still in a large majority, and that this majority continues loyal to the Government, does not understand why these constant dead-locks happen. It still has faith in Mr. Gladstone—that is to say, the mass of the people who believed in him in 1880, believe in him still; for the richer classes who generally hated him then, hate him fully as much now. And just because it does trust the Prime Minister, and is unwilling to suppose the blame to lie with him, it thinks very ill of its present parliamentary system. Very fortunately there are no pressing domestic

questions. Although the agricultural classes have been suffering, their mishaps are due partly to the competition of your Western farmers, partly to a run of poor harvests; so that legislation could not do much to mend their condition. Trade is fairly good, the working classes are pretty well contented; nobody has any pressing grievance to be dealt with. For these reasons the paralysis of the Legislature is borne with more patiently than might have been expected. But it will not be so borne for long. Unless Parliament is made a far more efficient machine for legislation than it has latterly been, the disgust with it will dispose the nation to throw far more power either into the hands of local authorities, or (and this is the more probable alternative) into those of the head of the executive. If Parliament is incapable, owing to its faulty procedure and the interminable dissensions of which it is the scene, to conduct the government of the country, the Prime Minister will tend to become a dictator. It will be strange indeed if the Irish members should give this turn to the development of the British Constitution. Y.

MADAME D'ÉPINAY.

PARIS, June 9, 1882.

No name is more attractive in the eighteenth century than that of Madame d'Épinay. She embodies, as it were, all the spirit of an age, all its wit, its grace, its illusions, its faults, and its charms. She was plain, very plain, as her portrait shows; but she had "la grâce, plus belle encore que la beauté," to use the words of Voltaire. M. Lucien Perey and Gaston Maugras, who published last year the correspondence of the Neapolitan Abbé, Galiani, became very much interested in Madame d'Épinay, who was the faithful friend and correspondent of Galiani. They found out a M. Edouard d'Épinay, great-grandson of Louis de la Live d'Épinay; they made the journey to Fribourg and Grandfey, a little château in the neighborhood of Fribourg, and they discovered there some letters and documents which were still inédited. They made researches in our archives and in some private collections of autographs. The authors of this new volume* have taken much trouble in collecting many details concerning Madame d'Épinay. They have really not given us a new Madame d'Épinay; they have not added even any important touches to this curious historical figure; but it is now the fashion to write books of certain personages without any provocation. The eighteenth century is the fashion, and it must be confessed that we always like to live for a little while in imagination in a society which, with all its defects, had a charm unknown to our time.

Mlle. d'Esclavelles, who was to be Madame d'Épinay, was born on March 11, 1726, at Valenciennes (the authors of the book have carefully certified this date). Her father was a veteran soldier, who, in his old age, had been appointed governor of the citadel. When the child was ten years old, the family came to Paris. The sister of Madame d'Esclavelles had married a *fermier-général*, M. de Bellegarde, who was very rich, and had a splendid house in the Rue Saint-Honoré. The wretched character of Madame de Bellegarde made Mlle. d'Esclavelles very unhappy. She could not remain with her, and was placed in a convent by her tutor, M. d'Affry. Madame de Bellegarde died suddenly, and from that time the house of M. de Bellegarde became hers. Her cousin, M. de la Live, who married her afterward, took at that time the name of D'Épinay, from an estate which his father had bought for him near Saint-Denis. She was thought by her family to have made a *mésalliance*.

* *La Jeunesse de Madame d'Épinay. D'après des lettres et des documents inédits. Avec un portrait.* Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.

ance, but D'Épinay had the promise of the *survivance* of the place of *fermier-général* of his father Bellegarde. He was handsome; he was amiable. The honeymoon was not long. Young D'Épinay very soon returned to the society of his friends and of his former mistresses. He went out every night and returned very late, sometimes drunk; he stole the pocket-money which Madame d'Épinay kept in her own secretary; he played constantly. Madame d'Épinay was very unhappy at first, but all her friends told her that it was not in good taste to take such trifles tragically: D'Épinay took his freedom, and she could take hers. She allowed her husband to take her to the Opéra ball; she received her first love-letters from the intimate friends of her own husband. D'Épinay was obliged to travel for months in France in the exercise of his functions of *fermier-général*; he told his wife on his return of all his "successes" (*bonnes fortunes*) in the provinces. What an education for a young, sensitive, naturally refined, and delicate young woman. There are some things which cannot be repeated, and which proved to Madame d'Épinay that her frivolous young husband was absolutely devoid of moral sense; he was a naïvely corrupt child, and all the elegance of the *fermier-général* could not conceal the terrible vulgarity of his nature.

Madame d'Épinay retired to the Chevette, a place in the country which owes its fame to her. She was not reconciled to her position; she was alarmed by the follies of her husband. Whenever she made a visit to Paris she had some new proof of his infidelity. On September 29, 1746, she had a son, but, after the fashion of the time, the child was immediately sent out to nurse. D'Épinay tried at times to console her. "My dear friend," said he, "you have no notion of the world and of its usages. Is there anything in common between a creature who can be had for money and whom you leave when you don't want her any more, and a woman whom you esteem and whom you have chosen?" He cited the names of all his friends who had mistresses. Madame d'Épinay could only answer by crying.

Mlle. de Bellegarde, who was a great friend of Madame d'Épinay, married M. d'Houdetot, and the history of this marriage, as told in 'La Jeunesse de Madame d'Épinay,' is very characteristic. The two young people had absolutely nothing to do with the arrangements. The two families met before them, talked and discussed like notaries, and they had nothing to do but to assent. D'Houdetot made his wife very unhappy; he had a mistress, and kept her. He was brutal; he gambled constantly, and he contrived to spend the greater part of his wife's fortune. He was obliged to accept, as the world did before him, the *liaison* of his wife with the famous Saint-Lambert. The friends of Madame d'Épinay were no better than her relatives. One of the worst was the famous Mlle. d'Ette, of whom Rousseau says: "She was wicked, and lived with Valory, who was not good." Diderot compares her, on account of her beautiful complexion, to a cup of milk spread over with roses. "The Chevalier de Valory," he says, "took her from her father's house when she was fourteen; he lived with her, dishonored her, gave her children, promised to marry her, and abandoned her."

Madame d'Épinay had a daughter in June, 1747. Her husband was away at the time in the provinces; she was living with Mlle. d'Ette, with Valory, and with Francueil. Mlle. d'Ette soon perceived that Francueil was in love with Madame d'Épinay, and she saw in this passion a way of establishing herself in Madame d'Épinay's house. She became the confidante; she helped Francueil; she informed Madame d'Épi-

nay of her husband's conduct. There are some details concerning this wretched profligate which I cannot repeat here, and which must be sought in the book. It is enough to say that, if any woman ever can have an excuse for breaking the ties of matrimony, Madame d'Épinay had it. She was naturally good, and even innocent; but she was finally spoiled, like a good peach among rotten peaches.

Francueil became her consoler. He was one of the most accomplished gentlemen of his time; he was handsome, intellectual, a good musician, a good actor, passionately fond of art, of letters, of science. He was the eldest son of Dupin de Chenonceaux, a *fermier-général*, who had one of the best houses in Paris (he lived in the Hôtel Lambert, now inhabited by Prince Ladislas Czartoryski). Friendship soon became love. M. d'Épinay, on his side, continued his disorderly life. The "séparation de biens" (separation of fortunes) was pronounced between them by the Châtelet of Paris on May 14, 1749. D'Épinay's conduct became so gross that the Minister exiled him to Poitiers by a *lettre de cachet*. Madame d'Épinay became absolutely free; she became acquainted with Duclos, with Mlle. Quinault, with the Comte de Caylus. Duclos was the son of a watchmaker; he was born at Dinan, in Brittany; he made himself famous by his wit at the Café Procope, in the Latin Quarter, where he lived with Crébillon, Piron, and others; he was received into the best society. Duclos soon became a very important *arbitre elegantiarum* at the Chevette. He was in love with Madame d'Épinay, or affected to be; she was imprudent enough to confess to him her passion for Francueil, and Duclos profited by it and became a sort of tyrant. Mlle. d'Ette describes thus life at the Chevette: "One hears nothing here but comedy: one repeats his part, another tries on a dress; everybody is in love. This society is like a moving novel. Francueil and the little woman [Madame d'Épinay] are drunk with love as on the first day. Gauffecourt, the old dog, makes languid court to the indolent Madame de July. . . ."

The moral sense of Duclos was very obtuse, to use the mildest expression; he treated Madame d'Épinay with a *sans-gêne* and a brutality which are perfectly revolting. Still, she did not know how to get rid of him. She fortunately made the acquaintance of Grimm, at a moment when her difficulties had become extreme. Her fortune was greatly compromised by the prodigalities and vices of her husband. The good M. de Bellegarde, her father-in-law, had died; her sister-in-law, Madame de July, had made herself notorious by a passion for the actor, Jélyotte, and had died of the small-pox; Francueil, the beloved Francueil, was unfaithful, and spent much of his time with the dancer who was the mistress of M. d'Épinay—it seemed amusing to him to be his rival everywhere. When Madame d'Épinay learned this last news from the mouth of Duclos she became ill, and she dismissed Francueil forever. Grimm saved her. He took by degrees possession of her soul; he dictated her conduct; he banished Duclos; he warned her against Rousseau; he surrounded her with an intelligent society, with less frivolous people. "It must be admitted," say the authors of 'La Jeunesse de Madame d'Épinay,' "that Grimm conducted himself admirably with Madame d'Épinay. He remained her most faithful, her safest friend; but we believe he was not in love with her. The true passion of his life was the Empress Catherine."

Rousseau was very ungrateful to Madame d'Épinay. He read the manuscript of his 'Confessions' in the winter of 1770-1771 in various houses in Paris. In these 'Confessions' he was very hard on Madame d'Épinay; he went so far

as to say that, if he had refused to accompany her to Geneva, it was because she went there in order to conceal the birth of a child, of whom Grimm was the father. The archives of Geneva have been carefully searched, and no trace has been found of the birth of this child. The famous Tronchin was the medical adviser of Madame d'Épinay in Geneva, and admitted her to his intimacy; he certainly would not have lent himself to what Rousseau suspected. Besides this calumny, Rousseau attacks Madame d'Épinay with the greatest severity. He represents her as false, intriguing, capable of every bad action. Madame d'Épinay was so offended by the 'Confessions' that she asked M. de Sartine, the Minister of Police, to forbid their being read in so many houses, and M. de Sartine gave her this satisfaction. Madame d'Épinay had already begun her 'Memoirs,' but she then went over them again and finished them, perhaps with a view to answering the 'Confessions.' She only read them to a very small circle of friends, and the candor of so many confessions shows plainly enough that they were not intended for the publicity which they afterward found. Grimm, who was the universal heir of all her manuscripts, did not publish them. A manuscript, bought and published in 1818, thirteen years after the death of Grimm, by two booksellers, Brunet & Parison, was found among the papers of an old secretary of Grimm's.

Correspondence.

THE METROPOLITAN ALCAZAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My attention has been called by some frivolous literary persons to an article in your journal which is, it seems to me, not only inaccurate in many of its assertions and insinuations, but calculated to do me serious injury. I feel convinced that your sense of justice and propriety will compel you to give the same publicity to my reply that you gave to the ill-considered remarks of the writer of the article in question.

While it affords me the greatest pleasure to satisfy the aesthetic tastes of the citizens of New York, honesty compels me to admit that one of my objects in carrying on this business is to make money, and, while I regret that the two or three thousand persons who visit the Alcazar persist, as you say, in giving offence to those who are dining by looking across, and even at, their tables, I cannot, in justice to my associates, take any steps to keep them away. If you cannot improve their breeding, I am afraid that any poor efforts I might make would be thrown away. In the matter of crowding and etiquette, we only do the best we can.

But when your writer insinuates by a cleverly-turned phrase that the quality of the sherry furnished to our visitors is not good, I request, in return, to say to your readers that only the grossest ignorance of his subject can justify his remarks. The sherry which is put on the table at the Alcazar dinners is not only exceedingly good, but so good that a bottle of it would fetch in the open market more than we charge for the whole dinner.

As a wine merchant of some thirty years' experience, I feel entirely justified in saying that no other *table d'hôte* in town has wine as good as ours, and that the fashionable eating-houses ask three or four times the money for articles of the same value.

In fact, you have, I dare say inadvertently, done me a serious injury, and the cause of true temperance a real harm, in so belittling and decrying my honest effort to educate the citizens

of this country up to a better standard in their drinking habits, while making a modest living for myself. I feel sure that you will re-examine the matter and do what is right.

Yours respectfully,

TIMOTHY STEVENS.

NEW YORK, July 3, 1882.

[What Mr. Stevens complains of is our remark that "not even the announcement of the present management that it will give half a pint of 'Bodega sherry' with the dinner can keep people away." He seems to overlook the fact that any injustice we may have done through this remark was amply offset by our saying nothing whatever about the ballet.—ED. NATION.]

THE ATHENIAN NAVAL ARSENAL OF PHILON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Σφαίρα* of the Peiræus of May 28 (June 9) last gives in full a long inscription just found at the extremity of the harbor commonly known as Zea, which contains, apparently, specifications to the contractor for the building of the great naval arsenal of Philon, mentioned by Æschines, Strabo, and Plutarch, among other ancient writers. The inscription was laid before the Helikon Society of the Peiræus on June 7 by its discoverer, Mr. Alexander Meletopoulos. If it can be shown to have been found upon its ancient site, it will go far toward settling the still vexed question of the certain identification of the various Athenian harbors in favor of the solution adopted some time ago by prominent German scholars; but the *Σφαίρα* does not enlighten us upon this point. In the meantime, the inscription is of high interest, as giving entirely new information regarding Athenian architecture in the middle of the fourth century before our era; and it will, if authentic, which there seems to be no reason to doubt, afford much material for archaeological study.

I give those details of the plan and construction of the arsenal of which the interpretation seems certain; omitting, for the present at least, many doubtful points, some of which are not the least important.

The arsenal of Philon, son of Exekestides of Eleusis, was situated, according to the new inscription, upon the harbor of Zea, near the propylæon leading from the agora of Hippodamos. The building was 400 (Attic) feet long and 55 wide, including the exterior walls, which were $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet thick. The foundations were built with much care of hewn stone, and upon them was laid a directing course or base (*εὐθυμερία*) for the walls, projecting somewhat beyond them, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ foot high. Upon this first course was a second, 3 feet high (*ὑποστάρις*), the uniform height of each course above being $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet. The length of the blocks of all the courses, except at the angles, where their length was made to correspond with the position of the second triglyph of the Doric frieze, was 4 feet. The whole height of the walls, from the top of the first course to beneath the cornice, was 30 feet. At either end of the building was a front with a pediment, and in each front were two doorways only 2 feet apart, each 9 feet wide and $15\frac{1}{2}$ high. The lintels, side-posts, and sills were of marble, the rest of the exterior of the arsenal being of Peiraic limestone. The doors themselves were plated outside with bronze. There were windows all around the building—one opposite each interior intercolumniation on the sides, and three in each front. The windows were three feet high and two feet wide, and were fitted with bronze shutters.

The interior was divided into three long aisles by two rows of columns 30 feet high, including their capitals, and standing upon a stylobate of equal height with the base-course of the exterior walls. The lower diameter of the columns was two feet and three palms (of about three inches each); they were composed each of seven drums four feet high, except the first, which was five feet—leaving one foot for the height of the capital. The middle aisle was 20 feet clear in width between the rows of columns. The capitals were of Pentelic marble, and the shafts of limestone. There were 70 columns in all—35 in each row.

The epistyle was solidly constructed of wooden beams, and similar beams, spanning the middle aisle, appear to have rested immediately upon the capitals. The inscription adds technical details of the construction of the ceiling and of the timber framework which supported the tiled roof. Over the doors at either front the ceiling was of Hymettic marble.

The floor was evenly paved with stone. Between each column and the side wall was a stone barrier three feet high, forming a double row of small bins along the sides of the arsenal, each bin being provided with a gate. There were two tiers of supports extending from the columns to the side walls, for the storage of the naval undergirding straps (*ὑποσώματα*); and as these supports were at a considerable distance from the floor, wooden ladders were provided to give access to them. There were 134 chests for sails and for the white side-curtains (*παρὰρρύματα*) of the ships, placed one against each column, and the others opposite. These chests were made to open in such a way that their contents could be inspected at once, when necessary, by those passing through the arsenal.

To secure ventilation, spaces were left open at the joints of the wall blocks at certain places indicated by the architect. These ventilating apertures would form an interesting parallel to those existing in the lower courses of the Erechtheion, which are, however, pronounced modern by the latest authorities.

I am, sir, very respectfully,

THOMAS W. LUDLOW.

COTTAGE LAWN, YONKERS, N. Y., July 10, 1882.

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. will be the American publishers of a work entitled "Travels in South Kensington, with Notes on Decorative Art and Architecture in England," by Moncure D. Conway. It will relate the history of the Museum in that suburb, and be fully illustrated.

G. P. Putnam's Sons, who for thirty years have had Hood's works on their list, have brought out, in the prevailing quarto form and paper covers, "Hood's Own," a medley of prose and verse still irresistibly mirth-provoking in spite of the long silence that has followed the reign of the punster. Hood's designs are reproduced, and are even more striking evidence than the text of the growth of the public taste.

The seventh edition of "Appleton's Dictionary of New York" exhibits no changes that call for special remark, though there is a steady improvement in classification. The editor may be reminded that he has not kept pace with the census in the case of the suburban towns whose population he attempts to give. His style also will bear amending; as (p. 158), "an appetite which grows upon what it feeds"; and (p. 159), "a place . . . which contains some of its finest residences, which use the grounds adjacent in common." There is a singular absence of dates in connection with the removal and setting up of the obelisk in Central Park.

Vol. 134 of the *North American Review* deals with the timely topics of the past six months—the Guiteau trial and the moral responsibility of the insane, the Geneva Award, civil-service reform, the Navy, repudiation in Virginia, etc.—and some which we have always with us, like prohibition, homeopathy and old-school, woman's right to practise medicine, vaccination, the Christian religion, etc., etc. The index, in spite of apparent diligence in the cross-references, still leaves much to be desired. Let any one, for example, try to ascertain at a glance how many articles were written on the question of insanity.

From a paper on Constables, by Mr. Herbert B. Adams (one of a series on New England tithingmen, selectmen, mayor and aldermen, published in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*), we learn that a number of graduate students at the Johns Hopkins University are now studying co-operatively the local institutions of their respective States or sections. Even Canada is represented in this inquiry.

It may not be generally known that there is a semi-monthly periodical publication in raised letters for the blind—*Kneass's Philadelphia Magazine*. The editing of such a publication calls for far greater tact and discrimination than are expected of the ordinary journalist. The blind cannot skip.

The Society of Decorative Art of California offers several prizes for embroidery and designs appropriate to interior decoration. Goods are receivable from October 30 to November 1. Particulars may be obtained by addressing Frise Design Competition, 631 Sutter Street, San Francisco.

Mr. George W. Cable, the well-known novelist, in a commencement address at Oxford, Miss., discussed very frankly the question of "Literature in the Southern States." One slip, made in the interest of local color, was curious. Mr. Cable mentioned "Sargent S. Prentiss, of Mississippi," as among the "brightest lights in the firmament of American letters," "placed there by the Southwest." But Mr. Prentiss had first placed himself in the Southwest by quitting his native Down East of Maine.

The general catalogue of Colby University has two interesting tables, one giving the occupations and the other the residences of graduates, from 1823 to 1882. 194 are deceased. Of the remaining 536, of course the most were clergymen, 219, to which class ought to be added 11 missionaries. Next came lawyers, 158, and 14 judges; teachers, 130, and 8 superintendents of schools; physicians, 44; presidents and professors in colleges, 41; journalists, 32. Politics claims 2 governors, 8 M. C.s, and 1 United States collector. There are also 11 women. The other occupations are too thinly patronized to be mentioned.

—A brother of the late Col. Joseph L. Chester informs us that the latter received the degree of LL.D. from Columbia College several years ago, and that of D.C.L. from Oxford University last year.

—Adolph Count Zedwitz writes us from Döbling, near Vienna, under date of June 12, as follows (in translation). The subject is our recent article on vaccination. The communication calls for no comment:

"I beg leave to say, concerning Professor Vogt's table in No. 872 of the *Nation*, that this table, together with some other insignificant mistakes in calculation, pardonable in so vast a labor, were corrected by Professor Vogt himself in his second work, 'The Old and New Vaccination Doctrine.' But it seems quite unimportant whether before Jenner the rate of mortality was larger or smaller, as protection by vaccination could not be proved until recently. Why do the believers in vaccination lay so much stress on unessential side issues, and not refute the other

tables of Professor Vogt, which prove the absolute valuelessness of this silly practice? However, I am well aware that medical quackery is worse in the United States than with us, and vaccination is quite consistent with it."

—Mr. T. W. Higginson will begin in the August *Harper* a series of historical papers which will constitute, we understand, the most extended work ever yet undertaken by this writer. In connected form they will add another to the many histories of the United States, closing for the present with the opening of the anti-slavery agitation, or, say, the year 1830. The work has been suggested by the urgent calls from many quarters for a book on the same general plan with Mr. Higginson's 'Young Folks' History of the United States,' as to simplicity and readability, but on a much larger scale. The opening number, called "The First Americans," is the first attempt at a popular statement of the new view of American archaeology, inseparably connected with the genius of Lewis H. Morgan, which regards all the aboriginal races, from Digger Indians to Aztec, as essentially one race, to whose characteristics the Pueblo Indians afford the key. The second chapter will be entitled "The Visit of the Vikings," and the third "The Spanish Discoverers."

—Macmillan & Co. have recently issued two books for children which will serve to relieve the tedium apt to overtake the happiest idler in vacation-time. One is Mrs. Molesworth's 'Summer Stories'; the other, Mrs. Mary Steadman Aldis's 'The Great Giant Arithmos.' Parents who have once made acquaintance with Mrs. Molesworth are prepared to take anything from her pen on trust. Whatever else it may be, her writing is sure to be refined in spirit and expression; but undoubtedly also, besides this, she has the story-teller's art in a high degree. There are five of these summer tales, the supposed invention of a group of cousins in an English country-house, and told after tea out of doors. There is a mild ghost story and a fairy story, and three realistic narratives with a very just feeling and some pathos. The variety is remarkable. The youth of the audience aimed at is really below that of the supposed relators, but, as often happens, children in their teens will enjoy this book along with their little brothers and sisters, and will be repaid for the dutiful trouble of reading it aloud to them. To mothers Mrs. Aldis addresses herself, wishing to induce them to retain the privilege of instructing their darlings, and to aid them in grounding these in the troublesome branch of arithmetic. The book must accordingly be read aloud, and attention is secured by means of expected responses to questions or pauses, by an apparatus of bricks, crayons, etc., but above all by ingenious episodes, which gratify the juvenile mind for "stories" even in the midst of calculation. At intervals, too, the mother permits the child to look at the humorous pictures which help along the fun and the comprehension. The summer is a particularly good time for using such a text-book as 'The Great Giant Arithmos.'

—The French elections of a year ago have made it seem expedient to issue a supplement to Vapereau's 'Dictionnaire des Contemporains' (New York: F. W. Christern). It is a matter of forty-one pages, and may be cheaply had at a cent a page. The new members of the French Parliament furnish the greater number of fresh celebrities, and for the rest we have continuations of previous notices down to October, 1881, or termination by death, as in the case of Carlyle, George Eliot, Dean Stanley, Drouyn de Lhuys, Duvergier de Hauranne, etc. American events of the previous year caused the inser-

tion for the first time of President Garfield and President Arthur. The latter is accused of having declared for General Grant, who was trying on (*posait*) his "third and illegal candidacy." More explicitly still, in the article on Garfield, it is stated that General Grant was, "contrary to the Constitution," running (*se portait*) for a third term. This is not quite accurate, but there can be no doubt, as stated, that Guiteau "se déclarait 'le stalwart des stalwarts.'" We regret to miss Mr. Blaine still from among the contemporaries. But the revelations concerning his South American diplomatic performances since the date of closing the Supplement can hardly have been overlooked by the vigilant editor, and must cause him to be recognized in the sixth edition of the Dictionary.

—B. Westermann & Co. send us the concluding parts, 31 and 32, of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas.' They embrace maps of the regions bordering on the upper Adriatic (S. W. Austria-Hungary, with Bosnia and Herzegovina nominally assigned to Turkey), the East India Islands, the Chinese Empire, and South America from Valparaiso to Cape Horn, together with a title-page of which even the ornamentation is made instructive by exhibiting various modes of projecting the globe. All the maps mentioned are noticeably fine and fresh. Vienna, Peking, Valparaiso, and Lima are among the side-maps on an enlarged scale, and the Dutch possessions in the East are magnified by comparison with the Netherlands on the same scale: the mother country is hardly larger than Atchin, the northern tip of Sumatra. This ever-improving work first appeared in 1817, when fifty plates were sufficient for the needs and knowledge of the time. Now ninety-five are not enough, for a Supplement in three parts and eight sheets delineates the Mediterranean basin with a liberal measure. This supplementary chart, by the way, acquires a present interest by reason of the bursting of the war-cloud at Alexandria, not to say also at Constantinople. Every country which could by any pretext take part in the campaign against Arabi is here represented, except the one which will bear the burden of the fighting—England—and the one which can exert the greatest moral influence on the course of events—Germany. It would be superfluous to praise an atlas rectified for more than half a century at short intervals, and produced by the foremost establishment of our time with all the resources of art and science. Unquestionably, the novelty of the edition now closed is the thorough overhauling of the South American maps, the weakest point in the series hitherto. The United States, in six sheets, has had the benefit of the numerous determinations of our national surveys. It should be added that the nomenclature of the work is in general that of the country depicted, with parallel names subjoined in certain cases. For the world at large, there is no better or cheaper atlas.

—The Boston Monday Lectureship has been transferred to Japan, where it has been heard on the question, "Does Death End All?" The *Chrysanthemum*, a monthly periodical of Yokohama, says the treatment was masterly, and must have been "productive of good to foreigner and native alike." But the Buddhist *Jiji Shimpō* was not so affected by it. A writer, who professes to be "a believer in Buddhism and an opponent of Christianity," asks in that journal:

"What is this whose Samson-like blasts and Demosthenes thunder shake the hall? Is it the personification of Hercules? Nay, it is the man called Joseph Cook! On the 3d instant he delivered a speech in the *Meiji Kūaido* whereby I myself and the whole audience were astonished to stupefaction. After mature consideration of

his speech I find him just like John's cousin, for the substance of his myriad words amounted to nothing more than the elaboration of the following points.

"This is the substance of Mr. Cook's lecture, and thus shallow is his thought. In the first place he confounds emotion and intellect. For the worship of ancestors and the belief in immortality are the results of mere emotion. . . . Macbeth saw a ghost, therefore Mr. Cook believes in ghosts. Swedenborg saw lots of angels, therefore he believes in angels! In the second place, he confounds past and future. He holds that what was not yesterday will not be to-morrow. Why, 1300 years ago no one believed that the earth was round. But Copernicus found out by investigation that the earth was really round. What does Mr. Cook think of that! . . . How very stale his trite utterances, which a Spencer or a Bain could demolish with a blow! He ought to reflect a little more. In the third place, he confounds the general with the particular. The Christian is not the only religion which discusses the facts of the human soul. Why, even American Indians, to say nothing of Mohammedans and Buddhists, teach these facts of man's spiritual life. The Buddhist doctrine of rewards and punishments is certainly more logical than any other. Oh! there's nothing in Mr. Cook's assertions. The reason why so many were overwhelmed and fascinated was nothing more than the effect of his uncommon presence and eloquence."

—The easy reconciliation of religion and science exhibited in the funeral discourses over and concerning the late Charles Darwin shows to what an extent the rational and blameless life has achieved at least a post-mortem immunity from the theologians. In fact, so far as the scientist has any interest in this reconciliation, it may be said to lie in watching the process by which, one after another, the religious teachers justify their indifference to doctrines so abhorrent to them twenty years ago. The late lamented Lewis H. Morgan was, as is well known, an independent and valuable contributor to the Darwinian theory of the descent of man. This fact gave no trouble to the clergyman, the Rev. Dr. J. H. McIlvaine, a very intimate friend, who delivered the address at his funeral last December, as the following passage bears witness:

"I do not understand that his results, with reference to the length of time during which the earth has been inhabited by human beings, or with respect to the low condition out of which they have gradually risen, are in anywise opposed to Scriptural intimations. I cannot find any sufficient data in the Scriptures for a revealed chronology. Upon this point, as I understand, science is left perfectly free to discover by her own methods how long man has been on the earth. Neither, as I read the first chapters of Genesis, does it appear that man was created in a high state of development, though certainly in a state of innocence. There he is represented as without experience and without tools or instruments, and as not having commenced his work of subduing nature to his own uses and ends, through which only is human development conceivable. He does not appear to have been able to make his own first suit of necessary clothing—it had to be made for him. Nor does it appear that he had the speech-faculty in full development. Hence the creatures were made to pass before him that he might name them; which took place, as I understand, for the purpose of evoking his faculty of speech."

—No little interest has been manifested in New England in the case of Joseph Stickney, guilty of murder in Colorado under peculiar, if not extenuating, circumstances. What may be called his sociological dossier, drawn up by the hand of one of his relatives, has just been printed in the *Granite Monthly*, of Concord, N. H., for July. A chart shows his "ascendants" for seven generations, each individual being assigned a number, and 174 out of the 254 being described with more or less particularity in short biographies. There is no other country in the world, and perhaps no other section than New England, where so extended a pedigree could be produced for a common citizen, and with so little difficulty or so much certainty. The compiler calculates the

longevity of the ninety ancestors whose ages are known, and finds the average duration to have been sixty-eight years and five months. Only two are known to have died unnatural deaths, and only two to have drunk to excess. "None are known to have been insane, or to have died of consumption, or to have been divorced." Very few came under the censure of the law, nor can the nature or heinousness of their offences be now accurately judged. On the whole, therefore, the case of Joseph Stickney, on the Guiteau theory of defence, is one which clearly calls for hanging. If, nevertheless, "family influence" could be invoked to save him from this disgrace, the chart shows that his ancestors were also those of the Peabodies, Channings, Danas, Fessendens, Storys, Choates, Eliots, Otises, Bellowses, Winthrop, Tyngs, Buckminsters, Holmeses, Philippses, Brookses, and many other great lines. Among the more remarkable names are No. 243, Tristram Coffin, the founder of the Nantucket family; No. 235, Rev. Nathaniel Ward, the "Simple Cobbler of Agawam" and the author in 1641 of the "Body of Liberties," the foundation of Massachusetts law; No. 233, Gov. Thomas Dudley; and No. 115, Rev. John Woodbridge, an early master of the Boston Public Latin School. Ruth Eastman, among the female progenitors, stands out for precocity. "Her first child was born when she was 13 years, 4 months, and 26 days old; after marriage [she] played with other children." She was the great-grandmother of Senator William Pitt Fessenden.

—The Census Office has recently published, as a portion of the report upon "Power and Machinery Employed in Manufactures," a report by Mr. George F. Swain upon the water-power, actually in use and potential, of the South Atlantic watershed. It treats of the streams flowing into the Atlantic south of the James River, and opens with a brief account of the topography, climate, vegetation, etc., of the region; matters which are more or less germane to the subject, inasmuch as they determine the amount and character of the flow of the streams. This is followed by a discussion of the relation between the amount of rainfall and the flow, in which Mr. Swain attempts to obtain factors for deducing the annual flow from the rainfall. He expressly cautions the reader, however, against accepting his figures as more than the roughest approximations to the truth. The body of the report is taken up with descriptions of the several streams and their drainage-basins. The slope of the bed, as ascertained from levels, its lithological character, the topography of its immediate banks and that of its drainage-basin, with the climate, soil, and vegetation of the latter, are fully set forth. Tabulated with each stream are the utilized water-powers upon it, while eligible sites for further improvements are pointed out. One very important general fact, though not by any means a new one, is set forth very fully in Mr. Swain's report. That is, that along the line of junction of the older metamorphic rocks with the recent tertiary and quaternary deposit—a line which has an average position perhaps 100 miles from the coast—nearly every stream has falls or rapids; and that it is here, at the "fall line," that the most available water-powers are to be found. Below this line the streams are invariably sluggish. The Potomac passes this line in the twelve miles above Georgetown, D. C., where are found the Great and Little Falls; the James passes it at Richmond; the Roanoke at Weldon, N. C.; the Neuse at Smithfield; the Cape Fear near Averysboro; the Savannah at Augusta, etc. Above the "fall line" the currents of the streams are much more rapid

than below, and increase, in general, toward the mountains, affording large numbers of available powers. This report will doubtless add greatly to the interest now being taken in cotton-manufacturing in the South, as it brings to light the vast amount of water-power now lying idle in a region which has been supposed to be rather deficient in that element.

—Recent numbers of the London *Spectator* have contained very interesting communications on the relation of exercise to brain-work. Nothing like a general rule can be evolved from them, because individual temperament, employment, and circumstances create an endless variety of cases that no rule could cover. The more witnesses, however, the greater the chance that the inquirer will find a hint suitable to himself, and it is every one's experience that such hints often determine the happiness of a lifetime. The author of 'The Duties of Women,' a great believer in physical exercise, thinks that it "need not and cannot well be taken on the same days when the heavy mental work has to be done." Mind and body may best be strained alternately, by days or by seasons. Especially does she hold that every woman should provide for some perspiring exercise—"a natural Turkish bath"—at short intervals. An Oxford man advocates pleasurable change as the chief element of recuperation, more important than the muscular exercise: for which reason he prefers horseback and bicycle riding to walking. His rule is—"One hour of some thoroughly good form of exercise every day, and every week several additional hours' change." Another contributor has "uniformly found that reducing the diet, and especially avoiding the too free use of heat-producing foods, if not an equivalent for the lack of exercise, at any rate enables one to pursue one's desk-work in comfort, with efficiency, and without harm accruing."

—No doubt there is sense in all these suggestions, and some are within the reach of every one. We should ourselves lay stress on the advantage of a thorough gymnastic training as the basis of all subsequent modes of exercise. The muscular tone of the system once established in this way can be maintained with a minimum of effort and time by the chamber use of clubs, dumb-bells, or even simpler contrivances. The back, the chest, and the abdominal organs, which are the chief sufferers from sedentary pursuits, can thus be directly addressed in the countervailing exercise. If to this can be added a short half-mile run in the open air, the account will generally be found squared daily for any but exhausting mental exertion. The rule, "impletus venter non vult studere libenter," is of course as good for exercise as for brain-work. Beyond this it is hazardous to dogmatize. Some cannot safely take a long walk on an empty stomach, or before breakfast; to others nothing is easier, more exhilarating, or apparently more harmless. Some walkers have only rambling thoughts while on the road; others do their best and closest thinking under such circumstances. Rousseau belonged in the latter class: his mind needed the motion of the body to stimulate it to its utmost. Yet he was not jaded by this two-fold activity, and was, moreover, alive to the passing beauties of the scene: he did not overlook the wayside periwinkle. With some the morning and daylight hours are best for intellectual performance; others require the silence of the small hours of the night. Any one who can order his habits to suit his idiosyncrasies, physical and mental, has no excuse for running down from lack of proper exercise or from over-exercise. Among all the felicities of Darwin's life,

this ability was certainly one of the most enviable and the most profitable for mankind.

—The *Progrès Médical* of Paris has commenced the issue of a "Bibliothèque Diabolique" with a pamphlet of 88 pages entitled "Le Sabbat des Sorciers," by Bourneville and E. Teinturier. Considering the source from which it comes, we hoped that it might supply a real want in the history of superstition by examining the beliefs of the sixteenth century with the aid of modern scientific knowledge of hysteria and its allied nervous disorders. In this we are disappointed, for the brochure consists simply of a patchwork of extracts from the works of Bodin, Boguet, and other well-known demonologists, so carelessly edited that the sources are frequently not indicated, and we are left altogether at a loss to know whence are derived the illustrations which are lavishly given, except in the case of a folding plate at the end, which, we are informed, is derived from the veracious "Histoire des imaginations extravagantes de M. Oufle." The quotations thus put together supply a sufficiently comprehensive statement of what were believed to be the details of the witches' Sabbath, though the list of authorities cited might have been greatly extended, and the interest and value of the work would have been much enhanced by showing the practical unity of these superstitions in Spain, Italy, Germany, and England with those of France, to which the editors have confined themselves. Indeed, unless the editorship of future numbers is vastly improved, we can see little use in the series, for students of the subject are already familiar with the material presented, and the general public can take no interest in a mass of bald quotations without illustrative introduction or explanatory notes.

—The Société Bibliographique has done a useful work. It has published a 'Catalogue des Livres choisis à l'usage des gens du monde, contenant les meilleures productions de la littérature contemporaine,' a book of 183 pages, and costing only two francs, and yet one which the Society has been ten years in completing. The idea is like that of the proposed "A. L. A. catalog," and the experience of the Société Bibliographique resembles in all but one point what is rumored to have been the experience of the American Library Association. Numerous collaborators succeeded one another, leaving their unfinished work to successors who were compelled to recast it all, and every gap of any length required a fresh delay while the literature that had appeared in the meantime was examined and inserted. Whenever the Society found a man competent to give them any assistance, they applied to him to take charge of the section best suited to his special knowledge; and the response, even if it was in the affirmative, was not necessarily prompt. The one point of difference between the two societies is that the French catalogue after ten years is published, and the American catalogue after five years is in a fair way of being given up. The *Polybiblion* last May, in noticing this 'Catalogue,' gave a short bibliography of previous French attempts of the same sort. A dozen catalogues are mentioned, of which the most noteworthy was the R. P. Jean Baptiste Boone's 'Les mauvais Livres, les mauvais Journaux et les Romans, avec un catalogue de mauvaises publications périodiques et de mauvais livres, et une liste des romanciers du jour,' which reached a fourth edition. All of the others tried to print good literature. Boone alone had the courage to denounce bad books by name, and to run the risk of serving as a guide-post to those who demand nothing better than to have the way of perdition made plain before them. Probably he knew that such persons would get the knowledge which they

covet whether he gave it to them or not; that he was not really hurrying them forward in their path, and that he might be furnishing a beacon to some who were willing to be warned. The present list, however, takes the wiser course of pointing out the good books; the chief objection to be made to it is that there are not enough. Three thousand works would be a large library for one man; but this list, which is classified, is intended to serve many men of many tastes, and to show them which are the best books on a very large number of subjects. It is not credible that there are in French literature only 3,000 "best books." Perhaps a second edition, which will of course be needed in a few years, if only for the insertion of the literature of the demi-decade, will be fuller.

SANBORN'S THOREAU.

Henry D. Thoreau. By F. B. Sanborn. [American Men of Letters.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1882.

MR. SANBORN'S volume may be considered as a vindication, a criticism, a eulogy, or a biography; and in no one of these aspects is it a very successful literary performance. Thoreau's life was absolutely without incident, and where it might gain interest from an account of the lives of men with whom he was thrown, Mr. Sanborn fails to take advantage of his opportunities. He has a chapter, indeed, called "Friends and Companions," in which he undertakes to introduce the reader to Emerson, Hawthorne, Margaret Fuller, and Channing, but it is a bare introduction. We know very little more of them at the end of the chapter than we did at the beginning. Another chapter, on "Concord and its Famous People," produces exactly the opposite effect upon the reader from what the author evidently intended: the impression, namely, that Concord is a very stupid and provincial New England village, and that its celebrities must have owed their fame rather to the prevailing dulness than to anything that would elsewhere seem like remarkable brilliancy in themselves. As a critic, Mr. Sanborn fails, because he does not succeed in giving us a clear picture of Thoreau, either as an author or as a man. He has accumulated a great deal of testimony to show that his friends liked him; but this might be inferred from the fact that they were his friends, and also that they thought him a genius and poet and a remarkable man in many ways. Moreover, this we knew before. Not a single trait of Thoreau's character, except, perhaps, his capacity for enduring suffering, is brought out with any distinctness. This must be Mr. Sanborn's fault rather than Thoreau's, for every one is agreed that he was a man of marked character, whatever that was. Mr. Sanborn attempts to vindicate Thoreau from the charge of moroseness and aversion to human society—a difficult task at best, considering what his career was, and that he himself speaks of his life at Walden as a "protest against society." According to those who knew him best, wild animals were at all times more at home with him than men or women. Emerson, no bad observer, says: "Snakes coiled round his leg, the fishes swam into his hand, and he took them out of the water; he pulled the woodchuck out of its hole by the tail, and took the foxes under his protection from the hunters. He confessed that he sometimes felt like a hound or a panther." On this score, Mr. Sanborn's vindication leaves matters very much where he found them, and does not, after all, make us feel that Thoreau, as a casual companion, would have been at all an agreeable or sociable person to meet. A vindication which does not vindicate could hardly be of much use as a eulogy. Mr. Sanborn, in his

desire to be fair, fails to inspire us with any enthusiasm for his subject. Surely it is unnecessary, in giving an account of his personal appearance, to say that it was a "common mistake" to take him at first sight for a peddler. This may have done something to make him seem more human in a New England village, but in the world of letters it is hardly of sufficient importance to excuse its introduction. But the truth is, that at bottom Mr. Sanborn himself thinks a little better of a genius for being as commonplace in appearance as possible. It makes him more Yankee, more true to New England village life. He accordingly quotes, with great enjoyment, the following description given by a friend: "The most expressive feature of his face was his eye, blue in color, and full of the greatest humanity and intelligence. His head was of medium size, the same as that of Emerson, and he wore a number-seven hat." The art of eulogy lies in knowing how to magnify a man's greatness and importance without seeming to do it; but the extreme of common-place is as bad as that of exaggeration.

Mr. Sanborn makes an attempt in one of his chapters to analyze the causes and meaning of the Transcendental movement. This is really the most important branch of his subject; for, whatever else Thoreau was, he was a Transcendentalist. It is very necessary for any one who undertakes to explain Transcendentalism to the reader of the present day that he should appreciate much more fully than Mr. Sanborn appears to do the difficulties the subject presents. Every body is perfectly willing to believe that the Transcendentalists exerted a great and good influence upon their contemporaries; that they recalled a sordid and material generation to a recollection of the supreme importance of the things not of this world. But what any one who looks into the subject finds it difficult to believe is that their talk about the "Superhumanities" and "Stellar duties" was founded on any philosophical system, or grew out of any intellectual opinions really deserving the name. To the worldly-minded the movement was always rather a subject for merriment; but now that we are all willing to take it seriously, what is needed is that it should be made, if possible, more intelligible. Was it an intellectual revolt against Convention and Form, connected and allied with the great modern revolutionary movement in politics? Was it an accidental local fruit of German philosophy? Was it a sort of New England Christian Platonism? Mr. Sanborn does not throw any light on these points, except to suggest that at the bottom of it was "a certain inward tendency of high Calvinism and its counterpart Quakerism, always welling forth in the American colonies." He undertakes to show, by a few extracts from their writings, how such Calvinists and Quakers as Wheelwright, Sir Harry Vane, Anne Hutchinson, William Penn, and Jonathan Edwards "prefigured the mystical part of Concord philosophy." It is surely an instance of the sarcasm of destiny that Jonathan Edwards should be held in any way accountable for a movement which was a rebellion against everything he had taught, and the promoters of which in his day he would have had great satisfaction in driving out of Massachusetts. It is only on the principle that extremes meet that we can trace any connection between Emerson and Edwards. Mr. Sanborn's extracts only prove that in New England Christianity there was always a recognition of the existence of a principle of faith transcending human experience and knowledge. It is a good deal easier, to be sure, to show that this was true of the Quakers than the Calvinists. In the case of Edwards, the evidence produced by Mr. Sanborn is more than suspicious, for it consists of a description by him, when a boy of

twenty, of the charms and attractions of a young lady to whom he was very much attached, and who seemed to him to have an interior beauty of character and mind quite transcending anything he had ever dreamed or imagined. John Woolman, as a Transcendentalist, does better:

"There is a principle, which is pure, placed in the human mind which, in different places and ages, hath had different names; it is, however, pure, and proceeds from God. It is deep and inward, confined to no forms of religion, nor excluded from any, when the heart stands in perfect sincerity. In whosoever this takes root and grows, they become brethren. That state in which every motion from the selfish spirit yieldeth to pure love, I may acknowledge with gratitude to the Father of Mercies, is often opened before me as a pearl to seek after."

Belief in some such spiritual principle as this is, however, hardly separable from the idea of Christianity; and if all the sects which have recognized it could be considered in so far Transcendental, there would be hardly any need to try to account for Transcendentalism at all.

Mankind seems to be gradually settling down to the conclusion that the sum and substance of the Transcendentalist philosophy was that its votaries looked at the world essentially as poets. How valuable their verses may be as poetry is another question, which it is as yet perhaps too early to decide. Mr. Sanborn has a high opinion of Thoreau's poetical performances, but the specimens he gives are all more or less open to the charge of a want of originality. Mr. Sanborn quotes his lines on "Smoke":

"Light-winged smoke, Icarian bird!
Melting thy pinions in thy upward flight,
Lark without song, and messenger of dawn,
Go thou, my incense, upward from 'his hearth,
And ask the Gods to pardon this clear flame,"

and naïvely asks, "What Greek would not be proud to claim this fragment as his own?" All the early specimens of his writing, both prose and poetical, given by Mr. Sanborn, are imitative; and in prose he seems to have followed the footsteps of Carlyle in adopting, in mature life, a manner of writing which has little or no relation to his early style. But, imitative or original, he was, like the rest of his school, an idealist; and in the last resort we believe it will be found that it was their idealism, their antagonism to the material, which in a material age and country gave the Transcendentalists their importance. They came to recall New England, and through New England the rest of the country, sunk in a sordid self-satisfaction produced by its material prosperity, to the fact that there is something higher and better than money and money-getting, or the contented formalism of an outworn creed; that the pursuit of truth and beauty was all that really made man's life better than that of the beasts of the field. This was what the Transcendentalists taught and practised. They put aside worldly ambition and desire as truly as ever did any mediaeval monk or Oriental ascetic, and thus gave, what was essential in their surroundings, a practical proof of their sincerity. The result was almost startling. Their Yankee audience at first ridiculed them as dreamers; but when they found that what the Transcendentalists actually recommended to them was dreaming, their ridicule changed to wonder, and finally to a sort of awe-struck admiration, something like that which we may imagine a Roman to have felt on learning that a Christian was capable of giving up his fish-ponds and nightingales'-tongues and his afternoons at the amphitheatre for the sake of what he called the "Truth," proclaimed by an obscure Jew. Yankee worldliness was of course different from the worldliness of the ancient world, and the Transcendentalist gospel was not a new religion, but the New England apostles of the ideal, like Thoreau, impressed the imagination of their contemporaries as, in a different day

and generation, the heralds of a new gospel might. Their message was the battle-cry of a spiritual warfare for whatever was true and lovely and of good report, against the sordid subservience to material convenience and utility which the intellect is always basely suggesting to the conscience and heart. The effect and value of a battle-cry cannot be measured by intellectual tests.

THE KANT REVIVAL.

Kant's Critique of Pure Reason. By G. S. Morris, Ph.D. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 1882.

Kant. By William Wallace. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1882.

THESE two books, like so many others, probably owe their existence to the recent centenary of Kant's leading work. Mr. Morris's treatise, however, is announced as the first of a proposed series of "German Philosophic Classics for English Readers and Students," based on the principal works of Leibnitz, Kant, Fichte, Schelling, and Hegel. Referring to the watchword, "Back to Kant," which is now heard throughout Germany, Mr. Morris, in his introductory chapter, expresses his conviction that an important result of this movement will be "a return to those successors of Kant in whom his thought is completed"—meaning by this the metaphysicians just named. This conviction seems to us as unfounded as it is odd and paradoxical. The return to Kant is the result partly of the influence of Schopenhauer, who destroyed the nimbus that hovered around the names of Fichte, Schelling, and "the plump and stupid Hegel"; and partly of the fact that the German philosophers of the present day, being chiefly occupied with definite problems of scientific psychology, find Kant's critical method much more useful and suggestive than the ultra-dogmatism of his successors. Kant was not originally a metaphysician, but only entered this field after an apprenticeship of many years in physical and mathematical science; and as the same is true of most contemporary German philosophers—Fechner, Helmholtz, Wundt, Lotze, etc.—the secret affinity is explained which draws the latter toward Kant. Fichte, Schelling, and Hegel, on the contrary, entered philosophy from the theological arena, and thence reintroduced, in a new but aggravated form, many of those principles of dogmatism which Kant had so vigorously combated. Kant himself would have haughtily resented the imputation that these metaphysicians "completed his thought." Fichte's system he distinctly repudiated in 1799, and begged to be "preserved from such friends"; and as for Hegel's patronizing air of superiority, Kant would doubtless have heartily enjoyed Schopenhauer's caustic tirades. The Germans having almost completely abandoned the post-Kantian sophists, one cannot but regret every attempt to rehabilitate them in this country. There are, of course, numerous grains of gold scattered through these gloomy mountains of metaphysical ore, but it is hardly worth while to pick them out. The same amount of time and labor spent on psychological, biological, anthropological, and psychopathological works will give a student a hundred times as much insight into the problems of life and thought; and for the purpose of examinations the short summaries in the best histories of philosophy are amply sufficient.

Mr. Morris's introductory chapter of forty-three pages illustrates some of the demoralizing effects of a study of post-Kantian metaphysics. We lack the space to examine such peculiar assertions as this, that agnosticism is practical materialism, or that spiritual forces are the only ones we can conceive of without self-contradiction;

but the assertion that "Being is doing" can be corrected in a few sentences. "Being" is simply a wide, attenuated notion from which all positive attributes except mere existence have been abstracted; to add to this the pregnant quality of action, and to say that the concept is still the same, is extremely illogical. Experience certainly shows us no such thing; and in a treatise on a volume which, like Kant's 'Critique of Pure Reason,' aims at the destruction of such arbitrary, *ipse-dixit* methods of philosophizing, and at showing the impossibility of a science of metaphysics, or of knowledge going beyond experience, it is discouraging to meet with such assertions. To a reader who will be on his guard in this respect Mr. Morris's book will nevertheless be of use in facilitating the study of Kant. The philosopher's reasoning is reproduced in clear language, chapter by chapter, and the criticisms appended are often incisive and instructive. A book like this, or Kuno Fischer's analysis of Kant's works, is almost indispensable to the average student of Kant, with whom it is a common experience to encounter pages which at first convey hardly any meaning, but which, after being perused in the language of a lucid expositor who is familiar with the whole system, at once become so clear that the reader wonders he did not see the point before. But these aids should never be read except in direct connection with the work on which they are based, so that the student may be able to judge for himself of the correctness of the interpretation of such passages as are rendered obscure by Kant's horrid terminology and his frequently inconsistent use of it.

Mr. Wallace's 'Kant' is intended less for the student than for the general reader. It endeavors to give, in a little more than two hundred pages, a summary of the leading facts of Kant's life, and the leading ideas of his works, avoiding Kantian terminology as far as possible. It need hardly be said that the biographical part is better done than the philosophical, for Kant's ideas do not easily admit of being squeezed into a nutshell, while on the other hand a good biography is sure to be entertaining, because Kant's life, uneventful as it was, was flavored by the oddity and regularity of his habits. Those who can readily follow all the chapters in this book will find no insuperable difficulty in understanding the much more complete chapter on Kant in Ueberweg's 'History of Philosophy,' but it does not follow from this that Mr. Wallace's book is not well worth reading. Most of it is expository, criticism being only occasionally introduced. A reference to Prof. Zeller's recent able criticism of Kant's ethical views would have made the chapter on these more suggestive and valuable; and in the chapter on Kant's aesthetic doctrines a few pages on the manner in which they have been adapted and modified by Schopenhauer would have reflected light on Kant himself. Kant's ideas on the beautiful and sublime have had an immense influence on modern aesthetic speculation; and imperfect as they often are, they are yet to a modern student extremely instructive, since they resemble Darwin's discussions in clearly pointing out the various problems involved, whether they are solved or not. The power of profound meditation has never been more beautifully illustrated than in this case; for Kant, as is well known, had very little direct knowledge of art, music, or even poetry. He was at one time offered a professorship of poetry, but declined it, as he probably felt that his greatest powers were not in that direction.

We must, however, defend Kant against an unjust criticism of Mr. Wallace's, who quotes as evidence of his limitations on the aesthetic side his statement that "the old songs from Homer to Ossian, and from Orpheus to the prophets,

owe their brilliancy of style to the want of proper means to express their ideas." This is in reality one of the most brilliant aperçus ever made by Kant. What he means is, that the directness and pictorial concreteness of the language of the old poets are due to the fact that they reasoned not in abstract ideas, but in images. Modern poets of the highest rank do the same thing, but they do it consciously, while with the ancients it was unconscious and involuntary, owing to the fact, well known to all students of anthropology, that abstract ideas and dexterity in the use of them have only been very gradually developed in course of time. The language of savages is always more poetic or pictorial than that of civilized beings, excepting (for here, too, extremes meet) men of genius. According to Schopenhauer, all original thinking is done in images, and there can be little doubt that Kant was one of those who reasoned in this way. This seems to be disproved by the abstractness of his language in his principal works and his avoidance of illustrations; but the cause of this evidently was that Kant had inherited or imbibed the notion that illustrations are out of place in strictly scientific treatises. Those which he does introduce are always extremely apt and appropriate, while his popular treatise on psychology, which he called 'Anthropologie,' is so full of references to men and things that it reads more like Schopenhauer than like Kant, showing that whenever he thought fit he could readily give a profusion of those concrete images on which his abstract reasoning was based. His immediate successors, on the contrary, began with the driest and most barren generalizations, and endeavored to deduce from them the world of men and things, as far as those dignitaries considered it worth while to condescend to such trifles.

THE MAGYARS.

Die Ungern oder Magyaren. By Paul Hunfalvy. Vienna and Teschen. 1881.

PAUL HUNFALVY'S ethnological and philological writings have placed him at the head of the critical school which began with the linguistic explorations of the traveller Reguly in the Ural regions, nearly forty years ago, and whose decision as to the origins of the Magyar nation has been generally accepted as conclusive. That the Hungarian language is kindred to the Finnish, and more closely related to it than to the tongue of any well-known people of Europe or Asia, had been discovered and proved generations before Reguly, but the links connecting the idioms of Finland and of the tribes that crossed the Carpathians under Álmós and Árpád, a thousand years ago, after long migrations from the Volga, were not sufficiently known before the investigations of that traveller, and the Finns could be considered an ethnic branch violently detached and carried away from a remote eastern home, and thus valueless for the discovery of the soil on which the common stem had grown up. Even as late as the third decade of this century, Csoma de Kőrös (Kőrösi Csoma, as the Magyars say), morally and intellectually one of the noblest sons of Hungary, spent years in the valleys and Buddhist mountain monasteries on the Himalayan confines of Thibet and India, following up deceptive philological traces in search of the cradle of "Árpád's nation." These romantic speculations have now been abandoned by Magyar scholars, as the formerly current identification of Hungarians and Huns has been, in spite of the popularity which Attila continues to enjoy in Hungarian ballads; and the most prosaic of all solutions of the vexed problem about the descent of the chivalrous nation is submitted to by the learned public at

Buda-Pesth almost without a protest. The people that boast of such names as Hunniades, Bethlen, Rákóczy, Kossuth, Petöfi, and Deák acknowledges as its nearest ethnic kindred the Voguls, who resemble the Calmucks; the Ugrians and Ostyaks, neighbors of the Samoyeds; the Sirtyans, Tcheremisses, Votyaks, Mordvins, and other barbarous tribes in the wilds of Russia, on both sides of the Ural Mountains. And what Paul Hunfalvy and Joseph Budenz have established at their centre of learning, Donner and his colleagues at the Finnish university of Helsingfors accept as no longer contestable.

The book before us, forming the fifth part of the interesting collection entitled 'Die Völker Oesterreich-Ungarns, ethnographische und culturhistorische Schilderungen,' was, unlike the author's larger 'Ethnography of Hungary,' written originally in German. It gives a succinct account of the results in this field of critical research, together with observations on the migrations of his nation toward its present land; on the various elements which successively entered into the formation of its nationality and language as now constituted; on its gradual religious, political, and literary development, and similar topics. The remarks concerning the very origins of the people contain what is comparatively most new. The Finno-Ugric family of the Uralo-Altaic, or Turanian, division of mankind had its abode, at a very remote period, in the basins of the Dvina, Kama, Volga, Ural, Irtysh, and Ob rivers, between Teutonic and Slavic tribes on the west and Turkic tribes on the east. The north was open to it to the Polar Sea; on the south, peoples of various races migrated past in a westerly direction. The Ugric branch of the family, to which the Magyars, Voguls, Sirtyans, and others belong, occupied lands between the Irtysh and Ob, in Western Siberia. Many of the commonest words of the Finno-Ugric languages testify to close relationship. Thus—to cite some of the most striking examples—the respective words in Magyar, Vogul, and Finnish for eye are: *szem, sem, silm*; for mouth, *száj* (pron. *sáj*), *sop, sun*; for throat: *tor-ok, tur, tur-ku*; for hand: *kéz, kat, kait*; for blood: *vér, ver, vir*; for heart: *szíve, sim, syöm*; for name: *név, nim, nime*; for water: *víz, vit, vete*; for stone: *kő (kőve), kav, kive*; for winter: *tél, tal, talve*; for ice: *jég, yang, jã*; for goose: *lúd, hunt, lintu*; for fish: *hal, kul, kala*; for woman: *nő, ne, nai*; for master: *úr, yor, uroh*; for one: *egy* (pron. *edy*, in one syllable), *äk (äkeve), yhte*; for two: *két (kettö), kit (kiti), kahte*; for three: *hárm, korm, kolme*; for four: *négy* (pron. *nedy*, in one syllable), *nelyä, n'iliä*; for five: *öt, öt, viite*; for six: *hat, kat, kuute*; for seven: *hét, sat, seitse*. The words for eight, nine, and ten differ widely—ten, for instance, being *tíz* in Magyar, *lau* in Vogul, and *kymmen* in Finnish. The words for eight and nine are compounds, almost evidently signifying *ten less two* and *ten less one*. These circumstances prove that the Finno-Ugric peoples originally counted only up to seven, as did the Turks, Basques, and others.

In this first period of their growth the Finno-Ugric peoples lived by hunting and fishing, as their common terms for things belonging to these occupations show. A considerable social advance is proved by their common words for father-in-law, son-in-law, bride, village, town, spinning, weaving, knitting, etc. There is, however, no trace of horned cattle in their common vocabulary—not even of the reindeer, the taming of which the Finns and Lapps learned later from the Scandinavians. Their oldest domestic animals were the dog and horse. After the separation of the Finnic and Ugric tribes, the former came under the influence of Teutonic

neighbors, and the latter of Turkic. The Magyars, having left the common abodes of the race, learned from Turkic tribes adjoining them on the south the art of husbandry and the names of the ox (Magy. *ökör*, Osm. *öküz*), buck (*kos, kotch*), ram (*ürü* in both languages), hog (*disznó, donyuz*), hen (*tyúk, tauk*), apple (*alma*), barley (*árpa, arpa*), pea (*borsó, burtchak*), hemp (*kender, kendir*), hatchet (*balta*), kettle (*kazán, kazan*), gate (*kapu, kapi*), market (*vásár, bazar*), and other familiar objects, besides the names of the lion (*oroszlán, arslan*), camel (*teve, deve*), and other strange animals. Our author considers the Khazars as the nation from which the Magyars most probably borrowed the Turkic elements of their language, relying on the authority of Constantine Porphyrogenitus. According to this imperial writer, the Hungarians (whom he calls Turks, once also Mazars) were friends and allies of the Khazars, and their wayvode Lebedias married a daughter of the Khazar Khan, shortly before the election of Árpád. A branch of the Khazars, the Kabars or Kavars, having been defeated in a civil war, fled to the Hungarians, and, pitching their tents among them, taught them the language of their race. On philological grounds, Hunfalvy believes the Tchevashes, living on and near the middle Volga, to be the descendants of the once so mighty Khazar nation.

The name *Magyar* Hunfalvy derives from *ma*, or *mo*, which in Vogul signifies: *country* (Finn. *maa*), and *gyer*, *man*, discoverable in the Hungarian diminutive *gyerek, gyermek*, little man, child, and corresponding to the Vogul *kär, kärem*, man. Thus the Moger or Magor of the early Hungarian chroniclers, now Magyar, signifies countryman, a term by which the Hungarians distinguished themselves from all foreigners. Magoria is to the chroniclers a part of Scythia, bordering on the country of the Jorians on the east. This is the territory of the Voguls and Ostyaks, in the West-Siberian Government of Tobolsk, known in the Middle Ages as Jugoria, the land of the Ugors, or Ogors. From the name of this people is derived the name Ungri, which the Byzantines, about 1000, applied to the latest conquerors of Pannonia, whom they also designated as Turks, Huns, and Mazars, and from Ungri spring the modern *Ungern*, or *Ungarn*, *Hongrois*, *Hungarians*. Ibn Bastah, an Arabic author who wrote in the beginning of the tenth century, calls the Magyars by their own name, modified into *Madjars*. His description of them, however, which places them north of the Black Sea, refers to a period preceding the conquest of their present land, achieved at the close of the ninth century. According to Leo Grammaticus, some Hungarian hosts appeared on the lower Danube fifty or sixty years before that conquest. Constantine Porphyrogenitus, speaking vaguely as to time, finds the Magyars established in Lebedia, which, according to his description, must have been west of the Volga and of the eastern Bulgarians, who dwelt on both sides of that river. Further east, between the Volga and the Ural river, lived the Petchenegs, and near them the Uzes, or Cumans; and south of the Bulgarians the Khazars, from the Don to the Caspian. The Khazars and Uzes, united, drove the Petchenegs from their land; the latter invaded Lebedia, and forced the bulk of the Magyars to migrate westward toward the Pruth and Sereth, rivers of Moldavia, whence they marched, across the Carpathians, into the basin of the Danube and Theiss. A part of the Magyars, however, moved eastward "toward Persia"—says Constantine—that is, beyond the Volga, where missionaries from Hungary still found a Magyar people in the earlier half of the thirteenth century, shortly before the great invasion of the Mongols. This

invasion obliterated what was then called Magna Hungaria.

Atlanta. By Jacob D. Cox, LL.D., late Major-General commanding Twenty-third Army Corps, U. S. A. [Campaigns of the Civil War.—IX.] Chas. Scribner's Sons.

GENERAL COX has given us a clear and straightforward account of the memorable campaign of Sherman against Atlanta, which terminated in the capture of that city and opened the way for his subsequent "march to the sea." The author, himself a distinguished participant in the movements he describes, shows great familiarity with all the details of the campaign, and a minute comprehension of the varied topography of the field of operations. His narrative is careful and painstaking, and his style lucid, though he is likely to become wearisome to other than professional readers, from the particularity with which he describes the positions and movements of the troops. The advantage of this particularity, even to the student of military history, is partially neutralized by the very indifferent maps which accompany the text, and which are, in this, as in some other volumes of this series, unworthy of the books they are intended to illustrate.

In the spring of 1864 the contending armies in Georgia were about to enter upon a death struggle. During the winter the Confederate Government and General Johnston had used every effort to repair the losses of the preceding campaign, and to set on foot a force which could make headway against the Federal armies, now combined under General Sherman and threatening the conquest of Georgia and Alabama. By the first of May some 65,000 or 70,000 men had been collected by the Confederates, of which 50,000 were with Johnston at Dalton, and the remainder were gathering to his assistance. Against this force Sherman was about to advance with 100,000 men, and Blair was coming up with 9,000 more. General Cox, in discussing the strength and losses of his opponents, lays too much stress on the imperfect field returns of the Confederates as compared with the fuller and more accurate reports of the Union officers. The poverty that sometimes placed a bottle of ink and a sheet of paper out of the reach of a returning officer had its effect, no doubt, but not to the extent, nor with the results, imagined by General Cox. The returns, when made, show for themselves, and to add "twenty per cent." to them, to put them on the basis of the Northern reports, is, to say the least, a very questionable proceeding in an historian. General Cox sweepingly avers of the Confederates, "that from a very early period of the war a systematic habit was formed of underestimating their own numbers and their own losses by way of exaggerating the odds at which they were fighting, and of keeping up the popular illusion that the preponderance of strength in the North was made up by superior military qualities in the South." But human nature was much the same on both sides, temptations to exaggerate were not wanting on the part of the North, and we shall never get at the facts in any given case by assuming habitual misrepresentation.

Sherman's campaign was a masterly one. He had, it is true, more than three men for every two opposed to him, and his preponderance in equipment was still greater; but he was far advanced in a hostile territory; he was compelled to maintain and defend a long line of railroad, his only avenue for supplies; he had before him a veteran and vigilant foe in a mountainous country, affording great facilities to its defenders and presenting corresponding difficulties to an invader. He first advanced against his enemy at Dalton, and finding him too strongly posted

to be driven, dislodged him by a well-executed movement by the right flank, through Snake Creek Gap toward Resaca. He quickly followed this up by another movement of the same flank, which compelled Johnston to fall back over the Oostanaula, nor was the latter able to make a stand until he had retreated south of the Etowah to the vicinity of Dallas and New Hope Church. In two weeks the Federal commander thus forced his adversary back for fifty miles, without a general engagement and without suffering heavy loss. Sherman now attacked the Confederates in position at New Hope Church and Pickett's Mill, on May 25 and 27, but was repulsed on both days with severe loss. His large superiority, however, soon enabled him by a movement—this time of his left flank—to force Johnston back, first to Lost Mountain, and then to Kennesaw. Impatient of the tenacity with which Johnston here held him in check, Sherman again tried, on June 27, a general assault of the Confederate lines, but everywhere met with a bloody repulse, and for the future desisted from such assaults upon entrenched positions. Recurring once more to his flanking operations, he pushed forward his right flank toward the Chattahoochee, while he held Johnston with his main body. The Confederates, to protect their communications, again fell back, and on July 9 finally crossed the Chattahoochee.

Important events now followed in rapid succession. Sherman passed the Chattahoochee with little opposition, while Johnston prepared to dispute the further advance of the Federal army, by taking a position on Peach Tree Creek, in front of Atlanta. On July 18 he was removed from command, the Confederate Government being greatly dissatisfied with his continued retreat, and fearing that his defensive tactics would result in the speedy fall of that city. Hood was put in his place. This officer, more dashing than discreet, at once exchanged a policy of cautious defence for one of offence, and on July 20 and 22 made vigorous efforts to overthrow first the right and then the left wing of the Federal army. These attacks, though inflicting severe damage on Sherman, were more exhausting to the Confederates. They (in conjunction with the successful operations of the Confederate cavalry) merely postponed the fall of Atlanta for a few weeks, until Sherman could gradually extend his right completely around the city, and place it firmly on the Macon Railroad in the rear. Hood, no longer able to keep his communications open, was forced to evacuate on September 1.

General Johnston's course during this campaign, as well as that of the Confederate Government in removing him from command, has been the subject of much diverse and bitter criticism. We have space but for a few words on the subject. That General Johnston had ability of a very high order for conducting the defensive operations of a small force against one so overwhelming as to preclude aggression, seems to be beyond question, as witness his skilful retreat from Manassas in 1862, and his still more masterly defence of, and retreat from, Yorktown; but his predominant characteristic as a commander was caution, and he was not so well fitted to command when disparity of numbers and resources were to be neutralized by boldness of design, rapidity of movement, and fierceness of attack. Many a commander, inferior to General Johnston in intellectual calibre, has won renown by holding, with smaller resources, such a country as North Georgia against an invading host. Nor can the attitude assumed by General Johnston in his correspondence with the Confederate President and Secretary of War be thought worthy of his position and fame. The action of President Davis, however, in displacing him at

the very crisis of the campaign was a tremendous blunder. Rare and extreme circumstances can alone justify a change of commanders in the midst of active operations. In this case the result was a series of events that rapidly precipitated the downfall of the Confederacy.

General Cox's account of the cavalry operations of this campaign is inadequate. The minor errors of the book are few. A curious one occurs on page 98, where General Polk is spoken of as Bishop of Tennessee and brother of President Polk.

Facsimiles of Examples in Delineation, Selected from the Masters for the use of Students in Drawing. By Charles H. Moore, Instructor in Drawing and Principles of Design in Harvard University. Cambridge: Moses King.

"HITHERTO, as a rule," says Mr. Moore, "examples of more or less inferior kind have been the only ones within reach of those who have wished to learn to draw; and the loose and meaningless habits of execution, and the uncultivated taste, which are so frequently met with, are but the natural result of their use. But now that the mechanical methods of reproduction have reached so high a degree of perfection, there is no longer any reason why students of drawing should not be supplied with the very best models."

To train the eye and the hand, and at the same time to lay the foundation of a pure and elevated taste, is, then, the object of this collection of designs. All who have had experience must agree with Mr. Moore that confusion of purpose, infelicity of selection, and mediocrity of invention, have presided heretofore over the manufacture of drawing-books and cartoons, and the teaching which has been based upon them. To confront the pupil, on the other hand, with masterpieces which ennoble even the failure to imitate them; to choose them with a sure sense of the peculiar discipline of each; to arrange them according to their progressive utility and their mode of production or reproduction—this is a service long needed and now executed by Mr. Moore with characteristic insight and refinement. He is himself familiar by actual practice with numerous vehicles of design; he has served his apprenticeship in copying the old masters; his own work is highly prized by lovers of art; and he has a perfectly clear conception of the task he has undertaken.

The sixteen plates of facsimiles made by the Forbes Albertype process vary in interest, and do not equally betray at a glance the special instruction intended. Parenthetically, we should observe here that they are not to be given to beginners, but to those who have already attained a precise command of simple lines. The first is Holbein's pen-sketch of Sir Thomas More's family, and until attempted it will probably seem the easiest of the series. In fact, the pupil who passes from it *cum laude* will be prepared to attack anything that comes after. More figures are introduced, for the sake of a like firmness and expressiveness of line, in bits from Dürer's woodcut designs from the Apocalypse and the "Great Passion." A woodcut after Titian, vouched for by Mr. Moore as in character of line remarkably like Titian's own pen-drawing, is followed by a portrait of a Doge, etched by Tintoret. Two red-chalk drawings from nature, of berry-vines, by Leonardo da Vinci, exhibit and will exact qualities of the highest draughtsmanship. In five etchings from Turner's "Liber Studiorum," rocks (as in "Dunstanborough Castle"), the strand (as in the "Smugglers—Flint Castle"), the pool (as in "Near Blair Athol"), tree forms (as in the last-mentioned plate and in the "Cephalus and Procris"), and the sweep of mountain, gorge, and valley (as in the astonishing suggestions of "Ben Arthur"), are all held up for imitation or despair. One sample of Prout's

architectural drawing invites the crayon or the lithographic pencil; a softer chalk is required for Ruskin's Venetian stilted archivolt and arch from San Michele at Lucca; while John Lewis's etchings of horse, donkey, and sleeping lion and lioness can hardly be followed except with the needle, unless the pupil prefers the option, held out for all the plates by Mr. Moore, of endeavoring to render their "characteristics in a comparatively free manner, as one might from nature." In the case of the smaller Lewises, at least, a slavish adherence to the lines we should regard as worth little except as a lesson in the technic of etching. The lion's mane is a different exercise, and as profitable, maybe, as the Doge's beard.

These plates are tastefully issued in a portfolio, and accompanied with handsome, though not very extended, letter-press. They will educate those who do no more than study them carefully without a pencil. The plan is so sound, and Mr. Moore so competent a guide, that we wish he might do something to raise the standard of primary instruction in drawing, which is lamentably deficient wherever it has fallen under our observation, in schools public and private.

The Culture and Management of our Native Forests. By H. W. S. Cleveland. Chicago, 67 Washington Street. Pp. 16.

THIS is a paper read last winter before a committee of the Massachusetts Legislature, and its object is to show that our natural forests may be greatly improved in value and beauty by a little judicious care and management. American writers on forestry, looking rather to the wants of the treeless West than to the requirements of the Eastern part of the country, have heretofore generally confined their attention to explaining the necessity and methods of planting trees, and little has been said of the importance of caring for the forests which nature spreads with such lavish hands over all the Atlantic margin. In any of the Eastern States, except, indeed, along the immediate sea-coast, trees will spring up with astonishing rapidity, if the ground can be protected from fire and the attacks of browsing animals; and it is to these self-planted woods that we shall have to look mainly in the future for our supplies of lumber. Forests, no doubt, and very extensive ones, will in time be planted on the Western prairies; but nature plants better and cheaper than man, and a planted forest can hardly compete as a money investment with a self-sown one.

The growth of a forest is one long struggle between the individuals composing it for mastery in the race for life. In the long run, the strongest species or individuals conquer and crowd out the weaker; but this process of natural selection is very slow, and a great deal of energy is consumed in it. In other words, in every natural forest in a well-watered country there are ten times as many trees as can possibly reach maturity, and the destruction of the superfluous trees by their stronger or more fortunate neighbors is only obtained at the cost to the survivors of rapid growth and early maturity. But nature can be greatly aided in its selection of the individuals to reach maturity; and here forestry should step in, and thin our woods and prune and direct the growth of our most valuable trees. Such methods are well understood in Europe, where timber commands prices which justify the cost of the labor necessary to assist nature to produce the finest possible trees in the shortest time; but in this country the value of forest products has not yet warranted the expense which a scientific management would impose on landowners. The time, however, cannot

be distant when it will be as profitable for the farmer to thin and prune his trees as it now is to manure and cultivate his corn or potatoes; and instruction in the methods of woodland management, based on experience and the study of the laws of nature, is certainly one of the most urgent needs of American agriculture. Mr. Cleveland's pamphlet is suggestive, and prepares the way for a more detailed work on the same subject.

The Finances and Public Works of India, from 1860 to 1881. By Sir John Strachey, G.C.S.I., and Lieut.-General Richard Strachey. London, 1882.

THIS is the joint work of two brothers. Sir John Strachey was for many years at the head of the finances of India, and his term of office is chiefly remarkable for an enormous blunder which marked the close of it. At a time when the expenses of the war in Afghanistan averaged £750,000 a month, Sir John calculated in his budget that the expenses for the year would amount to £1,000,000, adding that he saw "no reason to suppose that the estimate erred on the side of being too low." General Strachey was for many years at the head of the Public Works Department in India, and, as in the case of his brother, his term of office was signalized by an enormous blunder, for which the Indian taxpayer has had to pay very heavily. The great strategical railway which is to unite Calcutta with Peshawar had been constructed as far as Lahore on the broad-gauge system. At this point General Strachey, in defiance of the unanimous opinion of the railway experts, insisted upon carrying it on upon a narrow gauge. The consequence was that the extension, having been completed at great cost, was found to work so badly that the narrow-gauge railway had to be destroyed, and the whole reconstructed on a broad gauge. These two eminent administrators now come forward to assure the British nation that under their wise management of the finances and public works of India the people of that country have been redeemed from a condition of poverty to one of almost unparalleled affluence.

Nobody can read this book and doubt the perfect sincerity of its authors. Their panacea for the ills of India is a very simple one, and they are entirely convinced of its efficiency: it is to borrow enormous sums of money and construct therewith canals and railways all over India. They claim to have restored India to a state of affluence because they have carried out this policy to a large extent, though not to that enormous extent which a far-reaching wisdom would have enjoined. At the same time, from the midst of a huge and bewildering chaos of figures, these broad facts are clearly to be recognized: During eleven years of peace, the ordinary debt of India has been increased by £60,000,000—from £97,000,000 to £157,000,000; £142,000,000 have been expended on canals and irrigation-works which are called "productive," but which as yet have not returned enough to pay the costs of their annual maintenance; £15,000,000 have had to be expended in famine relief, notwithstanding which 8,000,000 of the people of India have succumbed to hunger; £18,000,000 have been spent on the futile war in Afghanistan; and the excess of exports from India over imports, during the same time, has exceeded the gigantic sum of £120,000,000. There are people, Sir John Strachey admits, who, fixing their attention upon these facts, are loth to admit the marvels which he and his brother profess to have achieved. They declare that the people of India "are becoming poorer and poorer, more and more exposed to ruin and death by famine; that crushing taxation goes on constantly increasing; that an enormous and

ruinous tribute is exacted from India to be spent in England; and I know not what else. I have," adds Sir John Strachey, "neither the time nor the inclination to reply to statements of this sort." Sir J. Strachey, however, has not adhered to this intention: the present book, which contains 450 pages, is a very labored, and quite ineffectual, answer to "statements of this sort." For neither he nor his brother perceives the very obvious fact that, while a large extension of public works is a legitimate index to a nation's prosperity when they are freely constructed out of the surplus capital of the nation itself, they denote nothing of the kind when constructed by a foreign despotism by means of imported capital. On the contrary, works constructed in this manner, while at the best they can benefit a portion only of the community, represent additional taxation imposed upon the community as a whole.

We will illustrate our meaning by the case of the East Indian Railway—one of the "guaranteed" railways, as they have been called. By its contract with the East Indian Railway Company, the Government of India provided, free of charge to the company, all the land on which the railway is laid, and guaranteed from the revenues of India five per cent. interest on the capital of the company, payable in sterling in London. The net cost to the state—i. e., to the people of India—is estimated to have amounted to not less than £12,000,000, when, by the terms of the contract, the Government of India was compelled to buy the railway outright. The price paid was £125 for every £100 of capital stock, or £32,750,000 for the whole stock of £26,200,000. Now, whence did the Government of India obtain all this money? They deducted it from the scanty subsistence of the ryots all over India, nineteen-twentieths of whom no more benefited by the construction of this railway than if it had been built in the moon. Whatever profits may accrue in the future to the state from the working of this railway, the wealth of the present generation has been destroyed to that extent by the fact of its construction. No compensation can ever be made to them, and they will bequeath by so much a scantier patrimony to the generation which succeeds them. It is freely admitted upon all sides that there is no capital available in India for the construction of these huge and costly railway-lines. The people live from hand to mouth, and possess nothing which is not required for the needs of the day. Capital must, therefore, be imported, and the interest on all such capital has to be paid by the very people who, in order to pay it, must deduct the amount from their already scanty subsistence. Thus the primary effect of the state undertaking to construct canals and railways in India is to intensify the prevailing impoverishment of the people. And when such undertakings are pushed on to excess by administrators of the Strachey type, the first failure of the harvest discloses the frightful abyss to which the people have been drawn. Stripped by the demands of the Government of all their little savings, dependent in each year for what they can obtain from the soil during that year, if the harvest be blighted before it is gathered, they have no alternative but to lie down and die.

An Etymology of Greek and Latin. By S. C. Halsey. Boston: Ginn & Heath. 1882.

THOSE who are watching the tendency of methods of classical instruction will be interested in this, the second of Messrs. Ginn & Heath's publications for the use of young students in classical philology (the first having been Prof. F. D. Allen's 'Early Latin,' published two years ago). The subject of the new book assures it a

welcome. It has evidently been made with painstaking labor, and is exceptionally free from that class of errors which is to be expected in a work that aims to put a large and difficult subject within the reach of beginners. On the other hand, its defects are of a kind much more easily avoided—namely, want of a clearly-conceived purpose, and errors of proportion. The important thing in a book of this kind is not so much to teach the student that such and such phenomena are facts, and that such and such words are related, as to give him sound and clear ways of looking at things. It is greatly to be feared that the young student of the 'Etymology' will not get very sound and clear ways of looking at phonetic change, for example, from the six and a half pages into which the whole of that large subject has been crowded. For the "rules" of assimilation and dissimilation of consonants, the learner is referred to the grammars, in most of which, in the nature of things, a treatment in keeping with a purpose like the present is not to be expected. The very word "rule," indeed, is of ill omen in a book upon comparative philology, though it is in perfect harmony with a form of statement like the following (under the head of vowel-change): "The object of dissimilation is to prevent," etc. The subjects of reduplication, nasalization, consonant-insertion, and inorganic vowels, are entirely omitted. No explanation is granted of the meaning of the phenomenon of vowel-increase, though the tables are given at some length. The subject of rhotacism is stated without explanation, illustration, or limitation of range, in the words, "Often s passes into r." On the other hand, the views of the new school are stated at much greater length. To students of some advancement, such a statement is the most important part of the book. But it is intended by the author—and very properly—that the subject he is treating shall be approached by beginners by the methods of the old school; and for that reason the young people for whom the book was made are entitled to demand, at whatever sacrifice of other things, a clear and sufficiently full presentation of the views of that school—to say nothing of the views held in common by both schools. It is to be doubted, too, whether the author has done well in ignoring the distinction expressed by the convenient terms, "cognate" and "derivative," and in giving no clew in his large enumeration of English words to any differences of experience among them.

In spite of these and similar imperfections, however, the book will be a useful one, and, improved as it doubtless will be in later editions, it should have an honorable career.

Mountain Scouting. By Edward S. Farrow, U. S. A., Assistant Instructor in Tactics at the U. S. Military Academy. New York: Metropolitan Publishing Co.

'MOUNTAIN SCOUTING' is something after the manner of Francis Galton's admirable little work on the 'Art of Travel,' but is more limited in its scope and far less carefully prepared and printed. It is designed primarily as a handbook for young officers going for the first time to the frontier, and abounds in practical suggestions with regard to camping, mule-packing, marching, Indian-fighting, cooking, living off the country, etc. Much of the information has a smack of real life about it, as, for instance, this: "To prevent a mule from braying when silence is necessary in a hostile country—tie a heavy rock to his tail." That, one feels at once, is drawn from the author's personal experience. A portion of the book is confessedly a compilation; but a great deal, such as the "diamond hitch" in mule-packing with an aparejo, has probably never been

printed before. Its value, therefore, to those who intend roughing it in the West, is considerable, but would have been greatly enhanced by a more systematic arrangement, or at least by the provision of an index. It seems singular that an instructor in tactics at West Point should be so inconsequent as to give, under the heading of "Rice pudding," instructions about fortifying one's camp; so credulous as to repeat, as a fact, the long-exploded story of old hunters, that the big-horn "frequently leap from great heights, landing on their horns"; or so innocent of zoölogy as not to know that the so-called "jack-rabbit" is not a rabbit, but a hare.

The vocabulary of the Chinook jargon, the common language of intercommunication between the many little Indian tribes of the Northwest, should have been given in Chinook-English, as well as in English-Chinook, since probably the majority of people learn a new language largely by ear. In such an uncouth dialect as this, especially, the written signs very inadequately express the sounds for which they stand. A stranger would first familiarize himself with the words he hears, and then learn their meaning. He might commit the little vocabulary at the end of this book to memory, and yet not be able to make himself understood; so that, if only one vocabulary were to be given, the Chinook-English would be the more useful of the two.

The Land of the Bey: Being Impressions of Tunis under the French. By T. Wemyss Reid. London: S. Low. 1882. 8vo. Pp. xii.-312.

MR. REID went to Tunis apparently as the special correspondent of the *Standard*, arriving in the city October 17, 1881, a few days after its occupation by the French. His stay in the country was very short (seventeen days in all), and he saw nothing of the military operations connected with the virtual annexation of the Regency. As a contribution to the history of this questionable transaction, therefore, his book has little or no importance. Its only value consists in the fact that it is a series of bright sketches of life and incidents in Tunis at a time of great interest. All alike, natives and foreigners, were naturally in a state of great excitement, and the latter never left their quarters without the risk of meeting an assassin in any scowling Arab who passed them. Under these circumstances, it was somewhat startling to Mr. Reid, on returning to his room at the hotel one day, to find it occupied by an English lady and her daughter, "a pretty young girl of seventeen," who had chosen this time to visit Tunis because "it was such a romantic place." In blissful ignorance of any cause for alarm, "they were quite prepared to go for a walk by themselves into the very midst of the native quarter"! Over the beauty of the bay of Tunis our author is very enthusiastic. The city itself, however, differs but little from other Eastern cities. The narrow, squalid streets, the bazaar with its tiny shops and impassive merchants, the strange parti-colored throng of passers-by, the strings of heavily-laden camels and mules, are well described, but seem perfectly familiar. There are also the same sharp contrasts between the exterior and the interior of the houses of the rich. Mr. Reid was invited by a General Ben Ayad to witness some of the native dances. Entering from "a little courtyard surrounded by buildings apparently of the utmost squalor," he found his way up a staircase, dimly lighted by a single oil-lamp, into what appeared to be a deserted house.

"Suddenly a door was thrown open, and, as if by magic, the scene changed. We saw before us a vast and brilliantly-lighted apartment, the extreme length of which could not have been

less than sixty feet, nor its breadth less than forty. Brilliantly illuminated both by gas-jets and countless candles, its richly-tiled walls and gaily-painted ceiling fairly glittered with light. It was furnished with huge looking-glasses, set in swinging frames like those used by ladies in their dressing-rooms, and wardrobes and cabinets of large size. The wood-work of all these was of the most brilliant vermilion-red, lavishly picked out with gold, and the general effect of this barbaric splendor was so grand that I was filled with surprise as I found myself in this noble hall, and felt fairly dazzled by the magnificence of the scene."

At the Bey's palace he saw a curious ceremony, which very likely now has for ever ceased:

"A melancholy-looking man in tattered garments, beating a large drum—like himself, considerably the worse for wear—crossed the courtyard, and, climbing the lion staircase, took up his position in front of the door of the throne-room. He was followed by a second performer on a kind of flute, from which he drew forth weird and ear-piercing strains. The door was thrown open, and two old heralds in scarlet and gold took their places on either side of it. Then, when the musical performance, which had lasted some considerable time, had ceased, one of the heralds, a venerable Turk, proclaimed in Turkish—and apparently by a series of dismal howls which reverberated through the corridors and courtyards of the palace—the titles and glories of the Sultan."

If we are not mistaken, a very similar ceremony takes place on Friday in every mosque in Algeria, notwithstanding the strenuous efforts of the French to prevent it. A short visit to the ruins of Carthage was the only excursion at any distance from the walls which Mr. Reid dared to make. "The whole site of the city is strewn with the broken fragments of pottery, mosaic, sculptured marbles, pillars, and tiles. Everywhere, too, huge fallen masses of masonry are lying prone upon the earth." The most perfectly preserved of these ruins are the cisterns, "vast subterranean structures, with heavy, vaulted roofs." The great mounds have been partially dug over, and some valuable treasures have been found, but they have not yet "been explored with modern thoroughness." An attempt to reach the sacred city of Kairwan failed, though our author got as far as Susa. The French were evidently not anxious for the presence of an English special correspondent with the army. But they had still more objectionable visitors than he, as the following passage shows: "Tunis has lately witnessed a remarkable influx of mysterious Germans—gentlemen, for the most part, of a decidedly military bearing. . . . These gentlemen are by no means obtrusive in their demeanor. They frequent none of the hotels; they might even seem to be anxious to escape the observation of the French authorities. . . . They show a most unwearied assiduity in collecting facts, both political and military, with regard to the past and the present of French rule in Tunis." In the closing chapter Mr. Reid treats exclusively of the political situation, but not in a manner to furnish much enlightenment. Showing the extent of English interests in the country, however, he states that there are 10,000 British subjects, chiefly Maltese, resident in Tunis.

Brushland. By John Darby. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

It would probably surprise the author of this book to be told that his farming is better than his English, or his fine English; but so it is. The supposititious dialogues with "my publisher" and with "Broadcloth," the classical allusion, the mystical philosophizing, are the rubbish which the judicious critic condemns as remorselessly as our amateur cultivator did the daisies and brambles of his Jersey farm. His excuse for writing is his success in redeeming a small portion of the

uninviting but really fertile southern section of New Jersey; he, a Philadelphia physician, directing, and with and through his tenants executing, his schemes of drainage, repair, and scientific planting. There is undeniable romance in such a recovery of the soil from waste and ruin, and health and profit in the process. The narrative seems as truthful as it is whimsical, and the book will take its place in the rapidly-growing library of New Jersey evidences. No one who has given any attention to the subject is disposed to regard lightly any prophecy of the future wealth and productiveness of the land of the vine, the cranberry, of all fruits, of glass, and of pottery—of clay, sand, marl, the scrub-oak, and the scrub-pine; a Western flatness with the undeveloped richness of the prairie, and with more than the prairie's capacity for the growing of timber; the dismal tract lying between the two greatest markets and the largest urban populations on the continent; the cause of the most unfounded prejudices against the State on the part of travellers who, like a certain ex-Secretary of the Treasury, take the census from the car-windows.

Essays and Dialogues of Giacomo Leopardi.

Translated by Charles Edwardes. With Biographical Sketch. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1882. Pp. 216.

THIS well-translated and tastefully-bound volume is, in view of the increasing interest in the writings of the apostles of pessimism, also opportune. Like the rest, Leopardi loved paradox, was not free from affectation, and realized the full value of his miseries as a "whetstone to his wit." There was also an adverse fortune as well as moral weakness; but the third and better element of pessimism was not lacking in him. There are abundant indications of the deep instinct that teaches men that despair, if it be genuine, reveals, if it does not sometimes make, character. It must be confessed that this tonic effect of objectifying and painting their wretchedness is not manifest in the pessimists of the present century.

There are many striking observations, with much that is labored and commonplace:—The first readers of any great book, Homer for instance, never appreciate it. It is the twenty-seven centuries of admiration that really impresses us. Because we cannot dissociate the two, we are ever mistaking the halo of fame for merit, and passing by books that are really better. Again, it may be that, from any of many other causes, it is our mind that is exalted rather than that the book is good. A book that makes a good first impression is cheap. Hence, literary fame is a matter of chance and often of mediocrity. Talent is a misfortune, for it may lead to that most absolute isolation which is found just ahead of our fellows; it may lead us to the illusion of living for posterity, who will, in fact, be as much meaner than we as we are than our ancestors, while at best it may barely get us a living by serving as a deformity one begs alms for showing. The best thing it can do is to devise a method by which the author is outstripped, forgotten, and perhaps, like Bacon, despised. The truest philosophy is abstinence from philosophy, and perhaps to become "only a trunk which feels and suffers," for the greater the mind the more the *ennui*. Our age is so mechanical that we may yet have even safety-valves for egotism: paths of honor, glory, virtue, etc., traversed by steam-power, etc.; and, as a pig's soul was said to be only a function or element like salt, which keeps the pork fresh till it is wanted for the table, so the human soul, if it would have a higher quality, must seek it by imitating the birds, which have the most perfect senses, are the most constantly active, and have the greatest mo-

tion in several elements, and whose song, of which the lately-evolved human habit of laughter is a ghastly analogue, is about the only real thing of joy in the universe.

Eau-de-Nil: A Chronicle. By E. C. Hope-Edwardes. London: R. Bentley. 1882. 8vo, pp. viii.-339.

If it were not for one thing, this book might be dismissed with the remark that it is a commonplace narrative of a very familiar journey. Miss Hope-Edwardes has no mishaps nor adventures, not even the doubtful discovery of a buried tomb, to record. Accompanied by her brother, she went a little beyond the first cataract of the Nile in the winter of 1880-81, making the various excursions prescribed by the guide-books to the ruins on the river banks. We will do her the justice to say, however, that she does not inflict many descriptions of these places upon her readers, nor does she have a great deal to say about the dynasties or other subjects so dear to the Egyptologist. The one thing which gives the book any value is the very graphic picture which she draws of the persons forming the crew of her dahabieh. Having evidently a more than ordinary faculty for winning the confidence of her companions, and aided by a slight knowledge of Arabic, she used to the best advantage her many opportunities for talking with them. Parts of these conversations, "from notes taken at the time, or immediately afterwards," are given, and form by far the most interesting part of the book, as they present a clear and presumably truthful idea of the life of the Nile boatman, together with his opinions on many important subjects. Whether her boat's crew was an exceptionally good one or not, we do not know; but, judging from her account, the men seem to have been good-natured, faithful to their duties, honest as regards their employers, and by no means lacking in intelligence. Especially attractive was the steersman, Rais Abdallah, "a charming creature in appearance and manners," the story of whose life is given at some length.

Miss Hope-Edwardes apparently saw little of the suffering among the people which has so clouded the enjoyment of many recent Nile travellers. Beggars were of course numerous wherever the boat touched. Sometimes they were very amusing. One was a boy

"about ten years old, very ragged, and with a bright Murillo style of face. He went through every sort of infirmity in pantomime: first dragging himself along the ground with apparently no legs; then suddenly going blind, and feeling his way up to us; then ravenously hungry, eating the ground—with admirable change of countenance; and between each, asking for bakshesh with the most winning smiles and gestures. But we had to be firm, as there was a pack of wolves watching, who would have

left us no peace if we had once yielded. At last his patience failed, and he changed suddenly, drew himself up, pulled a purse out of some deep recess in his bosom, opened it, and showed us some coins: shook it defiantly at us, and stalked grandly away, and a minute or two after we saw him peeping very cautiously round a corner to see what effect he had produced."

The following incident shows to what an extreme length the Eastern custom of offering refreshment during any business transaction is carried in Upper Egypt: "When St. L. went to the post office to send a telegram he was also immediately accommodated with a chair and a cup of coffee, the clerk taking another; and so they went leisurely to work." There are few political allusions in the book, but several times the present Khedive, Tewfik, was brought into the conversation by the author's companions, and always in terms of praise. This was chiefly because of his reduction of the taxes. For instance, Abdallah, whose home was on an island at the foot of the first cataract, says: "I have a little land—hardly any, but those maize-cakes you had came off it, and there are two or three date-palms. I pay tribute for it. It used to be five guineas a year; now Effendina—may Allah lengthen his life!—has made it two guineas and a half."

Eastern Proverbs and Emblems, illustrating Old Truths. By the Rev. J. Long, Member of the Bengal Asiatic Society, F.R.G.S. London: Trübner; New York: Funk & Wagnalls.

THE compiler of this volume assures us in his preface that the materials from which it has been drawn are scattered through more than a thousand volumes, some of them very rare and to be found only in Indian or Russian libraries, or in the British Museum. The marks of diligence are upon every page. But diligence is not sufficient for the making of a good book. This one contains many admirable things, and yet, as a whole, might have been much better. Its contents are divided into three parts, "Proverbs and Emblems chiefly Moral," "Proverbs and Emblems Moral and Religious," and "Proverbs and Emblems Religious." These divisions are quite arbitrary. Not only is the character of the proverbs under the different heads very similar, but the same proverbs turn up again and again under them. The compiler has not been so strict as he might have been in the construction of his title—"Eastern Proverbs and Emblems." When these are Russian he justifies himself easily, but when Italian, the only justification can be that we are all Eastern in the last analysis. Still, the proverbs here are mainly Eastern, and few better can be found anywhere. They are convincing proof of that the Eastern mind was very apt at this gnomic wisdom.

If only Mr. Long had been content to give us

the proverbial wisdom of others and had spared us his own lucubrations! On the contrary, every set of proverbs is introduced with a verse from the Hebrew or Christian Scriptures, and then we are treated to a homiletic commentary of the most trivial and inane description, into which are dragged as many Scripture texts as have even the remotest or most fanciful connection with the matter principally in hand. Anything drearier than the outcome of this method, followed up through several hundred pages, it would be difficult to conceive. But the intelligent reader, after becoming well apprised of Mr. Long's personal quality, will skip his homilies and be only grateful to him for the proverbs he has brought together.

Practical Dog Training; or, Training vs. Breaking. By S. T. Hammond. Forest and Stream Publishing Company.

It was for years the generally accepted theory that the education of pointers and setters could only be accomplished by the assistance of frequent and vigorous beatings, with an occasional charge of fine shot at long range in the finishing branches. Later the use of the cord was for some time much advocated for field instruction; whippings became rarer and shootings were almost dispensed with. Now Mr. Hammond boldly advocates the plan of teaching a dog "all it is necessary for him to know without a single blow being struck or a single harsh word being spoken," and claims that by adopting his method you can "invariably succeed in turning out a well-trained, well-behaved dog." Every one interested in dogs should read Mr. Hammond's book, as the same general rules of instruction will apply to any well-bred, intelligent animals so far as improving their general conduct and agreeableness goes. Mr. Hammond begins his dogs' training in the early days of their puppyhood, and is very sensible in preferring descendants of well-bred field performers to mere winners at bench shows. The education goes on slowly but persistently in a way to enlist the affection of the pupil in assistance of his instinct, and to teach him to obey from love and desire of reward instead of from fear. Mr. Hammond asserts that aside from the greater humanity of his method, the results obtained are much more favorable than by any other. The printing of the book is execrable.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anderson, T. History of Shorthand: Its Prospects in Europe and America. London: W. H. Allen & Co. Appleton's Dictionary of New York and Vicinity. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Baer, Mrs. B. F. Irene; or, Beach-Broken Billows. W. B. Smith & Co. 25 cents.
Björnson, B. The Bridal March, and Other Stories. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.
Buckhout, Mrs. B. M. Aftermath: From City and Country, Berg and Thal. W. B. Smith & Co. \$1.
Clark, S. S. A Text-Book on Commercial Law. Clark & Maynard.
Lubbock, Sir J. Ants, Bees, and Wasps. [International Scientific Series.] D. Appleton & Co.

YALE COLLEGE

Catalogue for 1881-82, under "Sheffield Scientific School," says: "For preparation in algebra and geometry, the recently-published text-books of Prof. Newcomb on this subject (Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1881) may, without indicating undue preference, be especially recommended."

CORNELL UNIVERSITY

Register for 1882-83, under "Requirements for Examination": "3. In *Mathematics*, Solid Geometry, and Conic Sections, as much as is contained in 'Newcomb's Elements of Geometry'; Advanced Algebra, as much as is contained in 'Olney's University Algebra,' or in 'Newcomb's Algebra.'"

NEWCOMB'S Mathematical Course.

By Simon Newcomb, Prof. of Mathematics U. S. Navy, Supt. of the American Ephemeris and Nautical Almanac, Member of the National Academy, Corresponding Member of the Institute of France, etc.; one of the authors of Newcomb and Holden's 'Astronomy,' etc., etc.

READY:

ALGEBRA, for Schools. \$1 20.
ALGEBRA, for Colleges. \$1 75.
GEOMETRY. \$1 50.

TRIGONOMETRY. \$1 50.
TRIGONOMETRY, with Log and other Tables. \$2.
LOGARITHMIC and other Tables. \$1 40.
IN PREPARATION:
PLANE GEOMETRY & TRIGONOMETRY. (In Press.)
ANALYTICAL GEOMETRY (in 1882).
CALCULUS.

Copies of any of the above sent, post-paid, to teachers for examination, upon receipt of half the advertised prices.

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

